

EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON SCHOOL-RELATED  
DISCUSSIONS INVOLVING THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL

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by  
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EFFECT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE ON SCHOOL-RELATED  
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An abstract of a Dissertation by  
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October 1976  
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The problem. This study examines the effect of organizational climate in elementary schools on: 1) the nature of school-related discussions with or by the principal, 2) who initiates school-related discussion with the principal, 3) the location of initiation of school-related discussion, and 4) the amount of such activity.

Procedures. The population for this study consisted of the behaviors of principals in their interactions relative to school-related discussions in public elementary school settings. Two types of settings were selected for comparative purposes: one setting was considered as relatively "open" in organizational climate and the other setting was considered as relatively "closed" in organizational climate. An instrument was developed which measured three dimensions: the nature of school-related discussions, the initiators of school-related discussions, and the location where school-related discussions were initiated. The study dealt with the classification of types of school-related discussions involving the principal, who initiated the school-related discussion and the location where the school-related discussion occurred. Data were gathered through direct observations using an observation record. For each principal, that data collected by the observer and the principal were combined and categorized in each of the three dimensions by frequency. It was then possible to use a Chi-square to determine independence of each of the three classifications and organizational climates.

Findings. The organizational climate of the school affects the nature (valence and topic) of school-related discussion with or by the principal. The organizational climate of the school affects the type of individual who initiates school-related discussion with the principal. The organizational climate of the school affects the location in which school-related discussion is initiated with or by the principal. Each of these were significant at the .001 level.

Conclusions. Principals in relatively "open" organizational climate schools participate in school-related discussions which tend to have valence, either positive or negative, while principals in relatively "closed" organizational climate schools participate in such discussions which tend not to have valence. Co-Curricular, In-Service and Professional Growth topics are initiated more frequently in relatively "open" organizational climate schools. School-related discussions occur more frequently with the Assistant Principal, pupils, supervisors, coordinators, and consultants in relatively "open" organizational climate schools, while such discussions are held more frequently with secretaries in the relatively "closed" organizational climate schools. Principals in relatively "open" organizational climate schools participate in school-related discussions more frequently in the teachers' lounge, halls and classrooms of the school, while those in relatively "closed" organizational climate schools participate in such discussions more frequently in the school office area.

Recommendations. Based on the findings of this study, it is recommended that school district policy makers, central administrators and community representatives should study the interactions and differences in interactions which exist between climates, decide which climate is preferable, and then, based on that decision, provide in-service for school administrators to promote the type of climate desired. In addition, further research should be undertaken to determine if the sex of the principal, the school organization, the age, and/or the administrative experience of the principal affects school-related discussions between schools of the same climate or across climate types.

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## Chapter 1

### BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE

Theory and research from the social and behavioral sciences support the position that when individuals needs and organizational goals are met by particular organizational structures, employee satisfaction and organizational health increase.<sup>1</sup> There is considerable evidence to indicate that the behavior of the school principal has an effect on certain staff conditions, such as productivity and job satisfaction.<sup>2</sup> The school environment can be seen as providing a stimulus to which individuals both attend and react. Henry A. Murray<sup>3</sup> has described this stimulus situation as one which provides individuals with a perception of the complexities of their environment. The same environment can be, and usually is, perceived differently by individuals with different needs. Thus, a person's behavior is determined by the interaction between his unique

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<sup>1</sup>D. S. Pugh, "Organizational Behavior: An Approach from Psychology," Human Relations, 22 (August, 1969), 346-347.

<sup>2</sup>Bruce A. McKay, Principals, Teachers, and Elementary Youth: A Study of the Relationships Between Selected Variables of Teacher-Principal Social Interaction and Six Features of the Educational Environment, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 079 842, February, 1973.

<sup>3</sup>Henry A. Murray, Explorations in Personality (New York: Oxford Press, 1938), p. 7.

needs and the environment.

The elementary principal plays a part in the decision-making process. He consults and interacts with teachers, fellow administrators, and the public as decisions are made. His interaction is a function of the decision-making process. Past research has tended to look at situations in various school settings and describe the situations as they exist (e.g., climate, morale, etc.).<sup>1</sup> There is a need to investigate the relationship between these "situations" and the behavioral patterns of individuals. Such information might then be utilized by administrators to help them develop their own models for personal interaction with their staffs.

#### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Present research and theory support the relationship between leadership and organizational productivity; however, there is little evidence to support hypothesized relationships for specific leader behaviors and measures of organizational climate in schools. This study examines the effect of organizational climate in elementary schools on:

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<sup>1</sup>Lynn N. Nicholas, Helen E. Virjo and William W. Wattenberg, Effect of Socioeconomic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems Brought to Elementary School Offices, U.S., Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 2394 (Detroit, Michigan: Wayne State University Press, 1965), p. 5.

- A. the nature of school-related discussions with or by the principal,
- B. who initiates school-related discussion with the principal,
- C. the location of initiation of school-related discussion, and
- D. the amount of such activity.

#### HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

Based on the preceding problem statement, the following null hypotheses were tested:

- 1A. The nature (valence, i.e., positive, negative or neutral) of school-related discussion with the principal is independent of the organizational climate of the school.
- 1B. The nature (topic) of school-related discussion with the principal is independent of the organizational climate of the school.
- 2. The type of individual (pupils, parents, staff, etc.) who initiates school-related discussion is independent of the organizational climate of the school.
- 3. The location in which school-related discussion is initiated is independent of the organizational climate of the school.

One other area of concern was the number of school-related discussions. No hypothesis was tested concerning the total number of such discussions; they are merely reported as additional information.

#### DESIGN OF THE INVESTIGATION

Permission was obtained from the Des Moines Independent Community School District to conduct the study.

The population for this study consisted of the behaviors of principals in their interactions relative to school-related discussions in public elementary school settings. Two types of settings were selected for comparative purposes; one setting was considered as relatively "open" in organizational climate and the other setting was considered as relatively "closed" in organizational climate. Since it was impossible to observe all such behaviors in all schools where such situations would exist, it was necessary to limit this study to representative schools and observations made over a limited period of time.

Two schools were selected for the purposes of this study. In order to do this, the results of a study conducted by Dr. Aris Petasis<sup>1</sup> were used in the selection process of the two schools. This was a study of organizational climate

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<sup>1</sup>Aris P. Petasis, "The Relationship of Organizational Climate to Selected Variables" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Drake University, 1974).

in the elementary schools in a city of 200,000, the results of which included classifying the schools by organizational climate. It was thus possible to identify one school which had a relatively "open" climate and one school which had a relatively "closed" climate. The principals of these two schools were utilized as the subjects of this study and certain behavior information about them was collected.

An instrument had been developed by Nicholas, Virjo and Wattenberg,<sup>1</sup> which was used in their study of the "Effect of Socioeconomic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems Brought to Elementary Schools Offices." It measured two dimensions: the nature of problems and the initiators of problems. This instrument was expanded to include another dimension, that of location, i.e., where the initiation of the school-related discussion occurs. (See Appendix A.)

The study dealt with the classification of school-related discussions involving the principal, who initiated the school-related discussion and the location where the school-related discussion occurred. It was therefore possible to place any school-related discussion into a single cell in a three-dimensional matrix. (See Figure 1.) For example, a classification identified as being D-6-f would represent a school-related discussion initiated by a teacher

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<sup>1</sup>Nicholas, Virjo and Wattenberg, op. cit., pp. 140-143.

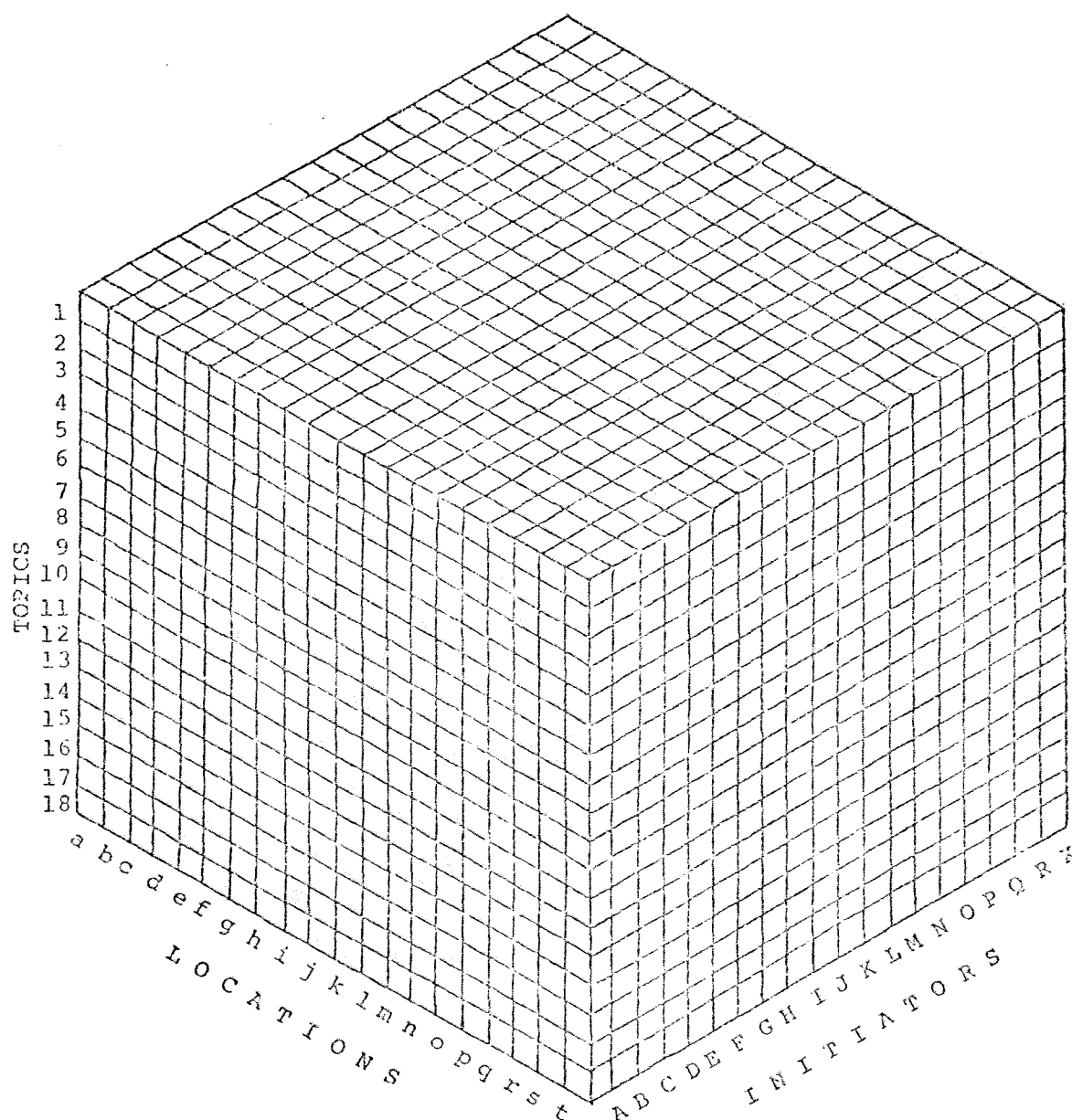


Figure 1. Illustration of Dimensions for Classifying School-Related Discussions.

concerning pupil property accounting which was brought to the principal's attention in the teachers' lounge.

For each incident a plus (+), minus (-) or zero (0) was entered. A plus sign indicated an interaction with positive valence. A minus sign indicated an interaction with negative valence. A zero indicated interaction with neutral valence.

Data were gathered through direct observations using an observation record. (See Appendix B.) Data were gathered and tabulated to obtain frequencies in classifications of types of school-related discussions, types of initiators, and the location where school-related discussions were initiated.

To assure familiarity with the investigative instrument and enhance the probability of consistently accurate observations, the observer spent a minimum of three one-hour periods making practice observations in a school separate from those included in this study. On the basis of these trial observation periods, modifications to the observation record were made as necessary.

Three days prior to beginning observations in the identified schools, the principals were given an orientation to the observation form and were requested to record all school related interactions that took place outside of the regular working day. (The working day was defined by the Des Moines Personnel Policies and Procedures Manual.)

Throughout the duration of a two-week observation period, the principals maintained records of all school-related interactions outside the period of direct observation on the form provided. During this same time period, the investigator observed and recorded school-related discussion behaviors in the regular work day hours. A time and motion study was also incorporated into this process.

For each principal, that data collected by the observer and the principal, were combined and categorized in each of the three dimensions by frequency. It was then possible to use a Chi-square to determine independence as specified by the three null hypotheses. The Chi-square used was as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

Where:  $f_o$  is the observed frequency in a cell, and  
 $f_e$  is the expected frequency for a cell.<sup>1</sup>

The .05 level of significance was used to determine if each null hypothesis was retained or rejected.

#### ASSUMPTIONS

The following assumptions were deemed reasonable and were necessary for the successful conduct of the study:

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<sup>1</sup>George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), pp. 173-75.



1. Behaviors of concern can be accurately observed and recorded.
2. Behaviors observed will be representative of the total situation in similar school climates.
3. The categories described and defined adequately portray the dimensions of concern.
4. The Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) is an effective device for measuring organizational climate in elementary schools.
5. In responding to items on the OCDQ, teachers and principals have accurately described their schools as they perceived them.

#### LIMITATIONS

The results of this study have limited generalizability due to the following limitations:

1. Only two school situations were observed rather than a number of situations in each case.
2. Observations occurred during only a single two-week period in each school situation.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The study is organized in the following manner:

Chapter 1 - Background and Rationale

Chapter 2 - Review of the Literature

Chapter 3 - Methodology of the Research

Chapter 4 - Presentation of Data

Chapter 5 - Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

#### DEFINITIONS

Organizational Climate is the personality of an elementary school as perceived by teachers and principal on the classification system recommended by Halpin and Croft.

Open organizational climate is defined as being an energetic, lively organization which is moving toward its goals, but which is also providing satisfaction for the individuals' social needs. It is marked by high scores on the subtests of Esprit and Thrust, and a low score on Disengagement.

Closed organizational climate is defined as being stagnant, with low teacher morale. Apathy is present. It is marked by low scores on the subtests of Esprit and Thrust, and by a high score on Disengagement.

School-related discussion is defined as any verbal interaction between one or more persons and the building principal on any school related topic, occurring at any time during the two-week observation period.

## Chapter 2

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In the process of obtaining material relative to this study, it was necessary to include many types of research and writing since no one topic covered the entire area of this study.

Since this study is basically a shadow study approach considering the behavior of principals in differing organizational climates the literature reviewed was organized into the following categories:

1. Organizational Climate
2. Behavior Patterns
3. Interpersonal Relationships
4. Teacher-Administrator Relationships
5. Communications
6. Leadership and Management Styles
7. Decision Making

The interrelationship of the above categories made it feasible to consider some articles of research under more than one category. Such categorization of material should not diminish the evident interrelationships and overlapping of material reviewed.

The chapter concludes with a review of shadow study literature.

## ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

The first studies on organizational climate were done in the 1930's by Kurt Lewin. He attempted to link the human behavior of nurses and environment through the following model:  $B = f(P, E)$ , i.e., the behavior of nurses (B) is dependent upon their personal characteristics (P) and the environment (E). In his research Lewin took into account goals, stimuli, needs, social relation, and atmosphere.<sup>1</sup>

Likert referred to organizational climate in terms of physical environment, cultural environment, and technological environment. In discussing the characteristics of the authoritative and participative systems of management, Likert referred to aspects of organizational climate inherent in each system. Under the Exploitive Authoritative system the employees have "subservient attitudes towards superiors coupled with hostility toward peers and contempt for subordinates; distrust is widespread."<sup>2</sup> Under the Participative Group almost the opposite environment prevails in that "favorable, cooperative attitudes throughout the organization, with mutual trust and confidence" exist.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Kurt Lewin, The Conceptual Representation and the Measurement of Psychological Forces (Durham, North Carolina: Duke University Press, 1933), pp. 10-60.

<sup>2</sup>Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961), pp. 222-36.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Tagiuri offers the following definition:

Organizational climate is the relatively enduring quality of the internal environment of an organization that: (1) is experienced by its members, (2) influences their behavior, and (3) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the organization.<sup>1</sup>

Miles maintains that climate, a diffuse concept in educational literature, can be replaced by the well defined, social-psychological concept of group norm, which specifies organizational conditions. The necessary elements of a norm are a group, interaction time among the group, specific ideas of desirable or undesirable behavior, and sanction.<sup>2</sup>

The psychological concept of "openness" and its antithesis "closedness" has been examined in some depth by Rokeach and his associates. The basic characteristic that defines the extent to which a person's belief system is open or closed is, according to Rokeach, the "extent to which a person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information received from the outside on its own intrinsic merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising

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<sup>1</sup>Renato Tagiuri, "The Concept of Organizational Climate," Organizational Climate, eds. R. Tagiuri and G. Litwin (Boston: Harvard University Press, 1968), p. 27.

<sup>2</sup>Matthew B. Miles, The Development of Innovative Climates in Educational Organizations, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 030 971, April, 1969.

from within the person or from the outside."<sup>1</sup>

Psychologist-anthropologist Kardiner's research in the area of basic personality structure indicates that cultures take on certain basic characteristics that are reflected in the personality makeup of most who are products of that culture. This also holds true for groups and subcultures and may lend credence to a point of view which suggests that individuals who remain in particular organizations will reflect a basic personality of that organization, which is in turn, of course, affected by the personality of the individuals. Whether or not this is suggestive that closed organizations attract persons with closed belief systems and open organizations attract their personality counterparts presents an interesting issue. Since at least a portion of the energy of an organization is spent in maintaining that organization, it would seem that an organization would mature and attract individuals of a personality type which would not threaten the organization.<sup>2</sup>

Merton raises this same question as he developed research about the bureaucratic organization of government and the personality structure of individuals working within

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<sup>1</sup>Milton Rokeach, The Open and Closed Mind (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1960), p. 57.

<sup>2</sup>Abram Kardiner, The Individual and His Society (New York: Columbia University Press, 1939), pp. 45-48.

the bureaucracy. He concluded that certain similar individual personality types are drawn to this type of organization and indeed maintain the organization long after the true function has ceased to exist.<sup>1</sup> Much earlier work by Hughes is generally supportive and illustrative of this viewpoint.<sup>2</sup>

Halpin and Croft have suggested that just as individuals can be classified as open or closed, so might organizations. The personality of an individual is likened to the climate of an organization.<sup>3</sup> They define an open climate as one in which there is attention to both task achievement and social needs. The closed climate is defined as one which marks a situation in which the group members obtain little satisfaction in respect to either task achievement or social needs. In short, it is a situation where the administrator is ineffective in directing the activities of the staff and at the same time he is not inclined to look out for their welfare.<sup>4</sup> The operational definition given to open climate

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<sup>1</sup>Robert K. Merton, "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality," in Clyde Kluckhohn and Henry A. Murray, Personality (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1962), pp. 376-385.

<sup>2</sup>E. C. Hughes, "Personality Types and the Division of Labor," American Journal of Sociology, 33 (August, 1928), 754-68.

<sup>3</sup>Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, The Organizational Climate of Schools (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1963), p. 103.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

emphasizes that this is a situation in which organizational members derive high levels of satisfaction both from their interpersonal relations with fellow workers and from accomplishment of the tasks assigned to them by the organization.<sup>1</sup>

In terms of organizational climate, Halpin and Croft have identified six climates in a continuum from open to closed, based on the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) which they developed. The six climates are: 1) open, 2) autonomous, 3) controlled, 4) familiar, 5) paternal, and 6) closed. To classify a school in an organizational climate they found it necessary to get scores for a school on eight dimensions, four for the teachers as a group, and four for the principal as leader. For teachers the dimensions are: 1) disengagement, 2) hindrance, 3) esprit, and 4) intimacy. For principals, the dimensions are: 1) aloofness, 2) production emphasis, 3) thrust, and 4) consideration.<sup>2</sup> Halpin and Croft found that a school possessing an open climate, which they deemed as most effective, was a lively organization, moving toward its goals while at the same time providing satisfaction to the members

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<sup>1</sup>Halpin and Croft, p. 103.

<sup>2</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, 1966), pp. 145-181.



of the organization.<sup>1</sup> An important aspect in the effective leadership of an organization is the perceptions of the leader held by the group with which he is working, as well as the perceptions of the group which the leader holds.<sup>2</sup>

Discussing the principal of an open, and thus effective, school, Halpin and Croft characterize him as follows:

The behavior of the principal represents an appropriate integration between his own personality and the role he is required to play as principal. In this respect his behavior can be viewed as "genuine." Not only does he set an example by working hard himself (high Thrust) but, depending upon the situation, he can either criticize the actions of teachers or can, on the other hand, go out of his way to help a teacher (high Consideration). He possesses the personal flexibility to be "genuine" whether he be required to control and direct the activities of others or be required to show compassion in satisfying the social needs of individual teachers. He has integrity in that he is "all of a piece" and therefore can function well in either situation. He is not aloof, nor are the rules and procedures which he sets up inflexible and impersonal. Nonetheless, rules and regulations are adhered to, and through them, he provides subtle direction and control for the teachers. He does not have to emphasize production; nor does he need to monitor the teachers' activities closely, because the teachers do, indeed, produce easily and freely. Nor does he do all the work himself; he has the ability to let appropriate leadership acts emerge from the teachers (low Production Emphasis). Withal, he is in full control of the situation<sup>3</sup> and he clearly provides leadership for the staff.

The term "genuine" as used by Halpin and Croft, is

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<sup>1</sup>Halpin and Croft, pp. 108-110.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 61-62.

similar to the use of the term "authenticity" by Argyris. He maintains that authentic relationships are those kinds of relationships in which an individual enhances his sense of self- and other-awareness and acceptance in such a way that others can do the same. The individual is, in other words, what he appears to be.<sup>1</sup>

One of the guiding assumptions of the work of both Halpin and Croft and Argyris is that an organizational climate which will be most effective will be one in which it is possible for acts of leadership to emerge easily from whatever source. One essential determination of a school's effectiveness noted by Halpin and Croft was the ascribed leader's ability, or lack thereof, to create a climate in which he and the other group members could initiate and consummate acts of leadership. They state:

If an organization is to accomplish its tasks, leadership acts must be initiated. However, it should be noted that we do not assume that leadership acts need be confined exclusively to the designated leader, himself. Such acts can be initiated either by the leader or by members of the faculty. If the leader fails to provide sufficient leadership acts--and leadership acts of sufficient "quality," in that they are "accepted" and that they also lead to increased group "effectiveness"--then members of the group will seek to offer the "leadership" required to make the group "effective." In this view we have been supported by the central finding that pervades all research on leadership and group behavior: An

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<sup>1</sup>Chris Argyris, Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness (Homewood, Illinois: The Dorsey Press, Inc., 1962), p. 21.

"effective" group must provide satisfaction to group members in two major respects; it must give a sense of task-accomplishment, and it must provide members with the social satisfaction that comes from being a part of a group.<sup>1</sup>

A recent survey of 104 studies of organizations showing the variety of manipulation of both personal and environmental variables leads Forehand and Gilmer to define organizational climate as "...the set of characteristics that describe an organizaion and that a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, b) are relatively enduring over time, and c) influence the behavior of people in the organization."<sup>2</sup>

Abbott finds that because of the key role of the principal, and because in the system being studied all principals were chosen from within the system, it was decided to examine the relationship between the characteristics of building principals and their respective organizational cultures. It was demonstrated that the principals largely reflect the need structure of their respective school cultures. To a large extent, therefore, the administrative staff serves to maintain the status quo. This can be attributed in part to that which the principals as a group perceive as a mandate from above and in part from their

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<sup>1</sup>Halpin and Croft, p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>G. A. Forehand and B. H. Gilmer, "Environmental Variation in Studies of Organizational Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, 62 (July, 1964), 361-382.

local rather than cosmopolitan orientation, i.e., the mandate from subordinates.<sup>1</sup>

Wiggins states:

School principals are enveloped in the predicament of their condition as members of complex organizations. They are so much in and of the stream of events that it is difficult for them to achieve perspective of the patterns underlying the events. This condition renders them subject to conditions where decision making may well be out-of-tune in the ensemble of organizational effectiveness.<sup>2</sup>

The school represents a social system within which teachers and principals interact as organizational members. In this sense schools direct their efforts toward the attainment of goals, and, in the words of Parsons, "contribute to a major function of a more comprehensive system, the society."<sup>3</sup>

Social systems theory, and specifically, the social system model represents the theoretical framework from which one can derive a conceptualization of the climate of a

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<sup>1</sup>M. G. Abbott, "Intervening Variables in Organizational Behavior," Educational Administrative Quarterly, 1 (June, 1965), 1-13.

<sup>2</sup>Thomas W. Wiggins, Conceptualizing Principal Behavior in the School Climate: A Systems Analysis, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 041 387, March, 1970.

<sup>3</sup>Talcott Parsons, "Suggestions for a Sociological Approach to the Theory of Organizations--I," Administrative Science Quarterly, 1 (June, 1956), 63.

school and the behavioral characteristics of principals.

Lonsdale writes of organizational climate:

Indeed, organizational climate might be defined as the global assessment of the interaction between the task-achievement dimension and the needs-satisfaction dimension within the organization, or in other words, of the extent of the task-needs integration.<sup>1</sup>

Lonsdale uses the terms task-achievement dimension and need-satisfaction dimension synonymously with the terms nomothetic (institution) and idiographic (individual), respectively.

From the point of view of role theory, every individual in the social system occupies a position that carries with it certain norms for behavior. They carry out their duties in a rational hierarchy of subordinate-superordinate interactions. As organizational members encounter each other in the performance of their roles the setting usually elaborates the need for reciprocal adaptations to the others' behavior. Organizational roles are, therefore, complimentary.

Conceptually, organizational climate is that state of the organization which results from the interaction that takes place between organizational members as they fulfill their prescribed roles while satisfying their individual needs. Guba illustrates this concept in operation as he

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<sup>1</sup>R. C. Lonsdale, "Maintaining the Organization in Dynamic Equilibrium," in D. Griffiths (ed.), Behavioral Science and Educational Administration (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964), p. 166.

writes about the task of the administrator:

The unique task of the administrator can now be understood as that of mediating between two sets of behavior-eliciting forces, that is, the nomothetic and the idiographic, so as to produce behavior which is at once organizationally useful as well as individually satisfying.<sup>1</sup>

Steinhoff and Owens state that:

It is clear that when one discusses the "climate" of an elementary school one must take into account all of the factors which affect the manifest behavior of the members of the organization.<sup>2</sup>

They contend that it may well be that creating psychological and environmental conditions in school organizations designed to foster more adequate and meaningful climate is a prior condition to the attainment of the more readily visible end product so eagerly sought in urban schools: higher pupil achievement.<sup>3</sup>

In a study utilizing the OCDQ, Otto and Veldman conclude that principals and teachers do not use a common frame of reference for viewing their relationships to each other, and they see decision making and school climate from

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<sup>1</sup>Egon Guba, "Research in Internal Administration--What Do We Know?", in R. F. Campbell and J. M. Lipham (eds.), Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, 1960), p. 121.

<sup>2</sup>Carl R. Steinhoff and Robert G. Owens, Organizational Climate in the More Effective Schools, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 019 372, November, 1967.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

dissimilar vantage points.<sup>1</sup>

In conclusion, Fox stated in a study:

School people are becoming increasingly aware that their professional work is done within an organizational and interpersonal climate. The climate is dependent upon such variables as: communication patterns, norms about what's appropriate or how things should be done, role relationships and role perceptions, influence relationships, and rewards and sanctions.

Productiveness and personal satisfaction indicate the quality of the climate. In a good climate, work gets done and people feel good about their relationships. If the climate is not good, there may be low productivity, job dissatisfaction, alienation, lack of creativity, complacency, conformity and frustration.<sup>2</sup>

#### BEHAVIOR PATTERNS

The behavior of the principal determines to a great extent the success of the day-to-day operation of the school. Thus, it is of little surprise that researchers have studied principals' behavior patterns, in the hope that patterns beneficial to operational success of schools can be isolated, analyzed, and reported.

Walcott studied in detail the daily functioning of

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<sup>1</sup>Henry J. Otto and Donald J. Veldman, Administrative Controls in Public Schools and Effective Working Relationships, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 011 085, May, 1966.

<sup>2</sup>Robert Fox and Others, Diagnosing and Improving the Professional Climate of Your School, Vol. III, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 042 708, 1970.

one individual. He found that school people tend in their professional lives to serve one community, the geographical one of the attendance area, but to participate more fully in another community, the cultural subsystem comprised of their fellow educators. Although educators like to think of themselves as working closely with the community they serve, the anthropologist found it equally useful to look at the educator subculture as a relatively closed one, and to view attempts to link school and community as instances of cultural contact. Often such instances can be marked for their rarity, and, from an observer's point of view, for their lack of success.<sup>1</sup> Walcott also determined that an individual who cannot cope effectively with a wide range of strangely diversified demands would be ill suited to the principalship. He found that day-to-day problems are the main concern of the principal and that overall long range goals are largely ignored because of the great amount of time taken up by demands placed on the principal by others.<sup>2</sup> The principal seemed to be moved about through most of his day by little problems brought to him or created for him by others rather than by any grand design of his own of what

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<sup>1</sup>Harry F. Walcott, The Man in the Principal's Office (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), pp. 66-87.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 123-177.



he wished to accomplish.<sup>1</sup>

Since it was shown that educators work in an environment largely isolated from outside influence, it would seem that the principals' individual behavior would to a large extent determine a school's success or lack of success. Surprisingly, Wiggins found in a study of elementary school principals that behavior is shaped by influences within the school district which tend to value compliance rather than individuality. The research into behavior characteristics of principals and the analysis of school climate provide evidence that the influence of experience in an administrative role has a socializing effect on principal behavior.<sup>2</sup> Research indicated that the behavior of principals is developed more by expectations held for him than by his personality, and that the roles and expectations associated with school administration are frequently incompatible with the personality and needs of the administrator.<sup>3</sup> Wiggins

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<sup>1</sup>Walcott, pp. 19-34.

<sup>2</sup>Thomas W. Wiggins, What's in the Script for Principal Behavior? Implications of Some Current Research on the Behavioral Characteristics of Principals, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 057 445, April, 1971.

<sup>3</sup>Russell C. Doll, Variations Among Inner City Elementary Schools: An Investigation into the Nature and Causes of Their Differences, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 038 447, June, 1969.

further supports the findings that personality plays little part in principal's behavior by pointing out that research clearly indicates that organizational climate stability continues when the principal is replaced.<sup>1</sup>

Sweiter in his research on relationships between superintendents, principals and teachers maintains that school principals need to be aware that they are between the superintendents and the teachers. Many times confusion results from misunderstanding of the superintendent-principal relationship and the principal-teacher relationships. Also principals need to realize that what they think others expect of them may not be what others really expect.<sup>2</sup> This seems to support the position that stereotyped role expectations play a greater role in behavior of an individual than do his own personal characteristics.

It seems that behavior patterns of the principal are more titular than personal. Thus researchers have sought to define ideal leader behavior from which individuals may pattern their own behavior.

Likert's research indicates that in organizations

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<sup>1</sup>Thomas W. Wiggins, Leader Behavior Characteristics and Organizational Climate, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 028 541, February, 1969.

<sup>2</sup>Robert E. Sweiter, Role Expectations and Perceptions of School Principals, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 001 210, January, 1963.

which are highly productive, leader behavior is a causal variable for both high productivity and patterns of organizational behavior which are consistent with the construct of an "ideal" organization derived from modern organization theory.<sup>1</sup> Feitler found significant correlations between leader behavior of principals and organizational processes.<sup>2</sup> Based on his own research and that of other studies, Feitler finds the implication that the positive quality or regard for teachers exhibited by the principal is a determining factor in the organizational environment of the school.<sup>3</sup>

Doll, in his analysis of "successful" and "unsuccessful" principals, states:

The "successful" principals appeared to be those who (1) showed a willingness to move independently and decisively in matters affecting the faculty or school; (2) had a genuine empathy for the teaching staff and the residents of the neighborhood as well as an ability to show this empathy in a non-condescending manner; and (3) had a perception of the principal's role as one whose primary task is to assist the teachers to teach, even if it meant clashing with the wishes of the administrative hierarchy.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Rensis Likert, The Human Organization: Its Management and Value (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 98.

<sup>2</sup>Fred C. Feitler, A Study of Principal Behavior and Contrasting Organizational Environments, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 065 900, April, 1972.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Doll, loc. cit.

The faculty meeting provides the setting for most principal-teacher interaction. Walcott reports of the absence of a technical language in dialogues among principals and teachers and to the preoccupation with salary (and indirectly, with status) exhibited in the meetings of the principals' own professional group.<sup>1</sup>

Crispin and Peterson further analyzed the school faculty meeting. They hypothesized a principal's interaction pattern in these meetings to be the major cause for interschool teacher attitude differences. Furthermore, they hypothesized that the more indirect the principal's behavior (willingly sharing his authority with teachers), the more supportive will be the teachers behavior (willingly cooperative). Principal behavior was recorded as direct (using authority) or indirect (sharing authority), and teacher behavior was recorded as nonsupportive (perfunctory) or supportive (willingly cooperative). Data indicated a rejection of the stated hypothesis. Teachers tended to be supportive irrespective of direct and indirect principal behavior. The amount of teacher participation was, however, exactly twice as high in the indirect climates. The consistent teacher reaction to the varying behavior of principals was at variance with the findings in other disciplines where the behavior of a group was dependent upon behavior of the

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<sup>1</sup>Walcott, loc. cit.

leader.<sup>1</sup>

Reporting on their research on the attitudes of teachers toward faculty meetings, Blumberg and Amidon, as reported by Crispin and Peterson, wrote the following:

...the critical variable accounting for differences in teacher attitudes from school to school seems to be the principal's behavior as reflected in the pattern of faculty meeting interaction...and, more positive attitudes are associated with faculty-centered interaction (the locus of responsibility and control being with the faculty); more negative attitudes are related to principal-centered interaction (the locus of responsibility and control resting with the principal).<sup>2</sup>

Because of conflicting observations concerning the causes of principals' behavior patterns and the effect of such behavior patterns, it suggests that more research could be fruitfully pursued in this area.

#### INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS

The concept of interpersonal relations cannot be totally isolated from other concepts such as communication, leadership, and organizational structure. In fact, all these factors can be thought of as different facets of the same phenomenon, i.e., the interaction between two or more

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<sup>1</sup>David B. Crispin and R. Duane Peterson, An Analysis of Interaction Among Principals and Teachers During School Faculty Meetings, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 011 139, February, 1967.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

persons. Thus, it is not surprising that the study of interpersonal relations is in actuality part of larger totalities which include these other concepts. Most studies more readily fall into the categories of communications and leadership styles than into interpersonal relations; then this section can be seen more clearly as a preface to the following sections.

Pugh has identified three distinct areas of analysis for the study of organizations: organizational structure and functioning, group composition and interaction, and individual personality and behavior.<sup>1</sup> In educational administration a great deal of research has been conducted in the first and third areas. However, little research has been attempted either in the second area or in the interdependence of the various areas.

For the school principal, it would seem that he would want to create and maintain interpersonal relations in which the goals of the school would be more likely met. Pugh concludes that principals are accepted into the structure of staff socialization but seldom are either socially active with or isolated from their staffs. Principals as a group are highly influential along dimensions of reliance and attributed influence. The "span of control" principle

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<sup>1</sup>D. S. Pugh, "Modern Organization Theory: A Psychological and Sociological Study," Psychological Bulletin, 66 (October, 1966), 235-51.

is a worthwhile concept when applied to the school setting. There appear to be constraints operating based on the number of staff members a principal has relying on him regarding discipline problems, teaching problems, and the interpretation of administrative policy.<sup>1</sup>

Anderson maintains that impersonality pervades the structure of organizations, so that individuals have little personal influence on the conduct of the duties of office.

Perhaps the main purpose of this status system and unequal distribution of rewards is to provide members of the organization with cues to appropriate behavior in the interpersonal exchanges that take place. As such, the status system reinforces the hierarchy of authority that exists within the organization by defining superior and subordinate roles. Moreover, the status system enhances motivation as well as acceptance of authority. Status and prestige are highly valued. The higher one ascends within the organization, the greater one's share of the status and rewards it offers, and thus there is a tendency for individuals to identify closely with the organization's values and goals. At the same time, the individual's stake in the preservation of a social system that offers desirable rewards results in the enforcement of institutionalized authority not only by superiors but by everyone. Such social sanctions to a large extent render organizational sanctions unnecessary.<sup>2</sup>

Chesler, by means of questionnaire responses, has conducted research focusing on the internal social relations

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<sup>1</sup>Pugh, loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>James G. Anderson, Patterns of Control and Their Consequences in Formal Organizations, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 030 951, 1968.

among members of a school staff. Analyzed to determine factors most influential in initiating practices designed to improve the classroom learning climate, Chesler found with respect to peer relations, variables significantly and positively correlated include perception of the staff as a cohesive unit and nomination by peers as highly influential and enthusiastic about new approaches to teaching.<sup>1</sup>

Davis, in his research on motivation, forms a "motivation-maintenance" model of individual worker expectations. He states that when an individual comes to a work group, he brings with him certain needs which affect his on-the-job performance. Some of these needs are physiological and others are higher-order needs related to his environment. Needs interact with environment to form wants which management and employees try to satisfy. These wants vary, and an employee "satisfies" them according to his perception of reality, rather than maximizing them. Their long run intensity is governed by a fluctuating level of aspiration. Wants are given direction and vigor within a social system by maintenance and motivational factors in the job situation.<sup>2</sup> One exception to the motivation-maintenance model is that women tend to emphasize

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<sup>1</sup>Mark A. Chesler, Social Structure and Innovation in Elementary Schools, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 014 817, 1966.

<sup>2</sup>Keith Davis, Human Behavior at Work (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957), pp. 42-61.



interpersonal relations with peers as a motivational more than a maintenance factor. Davis finds that women tend to find motivation in their peer working relationships.<sup>1</sup>

#### TEACHER-ADMINISTRATION RELATIONS

The concept of Executive Professional Leadership (EPL) was formally defined by Gross as "the efforts of an executive of a professionally staffed organization to conform to a definition of his role that stresses his obligation to improve the quality of staff performance."<sup>2</sup> Gross, Mason, and McEarchern have pointed out that EPL is a resultant of administrative behavior. "Principals can make adjustments in their behavior if they felt that such change would enhance their image in the teachers' eyes."<sup>3</sup>

Furthermore, "The assumption was made...their EPL scores would be higher."<sup>4</sup> After cross-tabulation of these scores it was found that the hypothesis was supported by the data.

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<sup>1</sup>Davis, p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>Neal Gross and R. E. Herriott, Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1965), p. 22.

<sup>3</sup>Neal Gross, W. S. Mason, and A. W. McEarchern, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958), p. 56.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 39.

Goldman conducted studies of personality traits of teachers and principals. The findings were examined for their effects upon teacher-administrator relationships. Results indicate that the need patterns of teachers and administrators are quite similar and furthermore that male teachers and principals at all levels are similar to those of their female counterparts.<sup>1</sup>

Purrington has found that organizational goals are achieved through the cooperative efforts of the organizations members. In a school organization, administrator competences are related to the effectiveness with which the school functions. If a school system is to function properly, the administrator must solve to some degree the four problems of productivity, external flexibility, internal flexibility, and reduction of strain and tension. To solve these problems the administrator must possess minimum technical, conceptual, administrative, and human relations skills. The study indicates that in school units where the administrator was evaluated poorly in the human relations area, teachers indicated significantly less identification to the school system and its goals than in units where the administrator possessed adequate human relations competence. Also

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<sup>1</sup>Harvey Goldman, A Study of the Teacher-Administrator Relationship and the Influence of Need Patterns, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 012 955, July, 1966.

teachers reported less singleness of direction or purpose among the staffs in units where the administrator lacked human relations competence when compared to units where the administrator possessed better human relations skills.<sup>1</sup>

### COMMUNICATIONS

Communication is the very essence of the functioning of a social system or an organization. Katz and Kahn defined organizations from an "open system" viewpoint, characterizing an organization as both energetic and an informational system with the function of the informational system being management of the system.<sup>2</sup> There is a general consensus that communication is essential to the functioning of an organization. Rogers and Jain analyzed three directions of communication: 1) downward communication, referring to the flow of information from superiors to subordinates, following the authority pattern of hierarchical positions; 2) upward communication, or the flow of messages ascending the hierarchical ladder; and 3) horizontal or sideward communication, occurring between individuals at the same

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<sup>1</sup>Gordon Purrington, Administrator Competences and Organizational Effectiveness, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 026 742, February, 1968.

<sup>2</sup>D. Katz and R. Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations (New York: John Wiley, 1966), p. 244.

hierarchical level, as among two teachers.<sup>1</sup>

Davis states that upward communication is much more difficult to develop than downward communication. He further states that an effective communication system results when all persons and groups are interacting with understanding and acceptance of other's frames of reference.<sup>2</sup> Both research and experience indicate that the upward flow of information is inadequate in organizations. Berkowitz and Bennis report that communications with superiors are perceived by employees as most important of all and among the most satisfying; however, these are the types of communications that employees are least able to initiate.<sup>3</sup>

Davis also states that of all communication symbols, probably the two most important in employee communication are face-to-face communication and action.<sup>4</sup> Porter and Roberts found, however, that the channels along which information travels appear to be important aspects of its

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<sup>1</sup>Everett M. Rogers and Nemi C. Jain, Needed Research on Diffusion within Educational Organizations, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 017 740, March, 1968.

<sup>2</sup>Davis, pp. 400-418.

<sup>3</sup>N. Berkowitz and W. Bennis, "Interaction Patterns in Formal Service Oriented Organizations," Administrative Science Quarterly, June 1961, p. 49.

<sup>4</sup>Davis, p. 391.

processing. When written and oral communication channels are compared we generally find that comprehension is greater when information is transmitted in written form, but opinion change is greater in face-to-face situations.<sup>1</sup>

In Walcott's detailed study of the everyday actions of a school principal it was shown that the greatest part of a principal's time is spent in an almost endless series of encounters. Most of these encounters are face-to-face, tending to keep the principalship a highly personal role. Electronic devices, including both telephones and intercom systems, eliminate some of the face-to-face aspects of communication, but Walcott found only about 10 percent of all communications conducted by the principal were conducted electronically.<sup>2</sup> Walcott also determined in a time and motion study that three-fourths of the principal's day was in the immediate presence of one or more persons.<sup>3</sup>

In the formal aspects of school meetings Walcott found the manifest function was to facilitate communication and to make collective decisions. These ideal functions were not accomplished to any great extent. Even in parent

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<sup>1</sup>L. W. Porter and K. H. Roberts, Communication in Organizations, Technical Report No. 12, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 066 773, July, 1972.

<sup>2</sup>Walcott, pp.88-123.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 90.

meetings, where the formal school organization exerted little control, communication tended to be one-way downward. Participants were generally called upon to concur with decisions already made rather than engage in significant decision-making of their own.<sup>1</sup>

Helwig, in a study conducted to find relationships between frequency of formal communication between principals and teachers and the general esprit of a school organization, tested two hypotheses: 1) that the frequency of oral and written communications between a principal and his teachers was related to teacher morale; and 2) that the communication frequency was related to school organizational climate. The results, however, found no significant correlation between total principal-teacher communications and teacher morale. The second hypothesis was not upheld and further refined statistical analyses of the data also failed to lend it additional support.<sup>2</sup> Perhaps principal-teacher communications might involve characteristics other than merely oral or written attributes. Halpin writes:

Communication embraces a broader terrain than most of us attribute to it. Since language is

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<sup>1</sup>Walcott, p. 88.

<sup>2</sup>Carl Helwig, An Analysis of the Relationship of the Degree of Satisfaction of Teachers Within Certain Ohio Schools with the Formal Communication of Their Principal, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 047 427, December, 1969.

one of man's most distinctive characteristics we sometimes slip into the error of thinking that all communication must be verbal communication. To persist in this narrow view of communication is folly....My point, is shockingly simple: Actions speak louder than words.<sup>1</sup>

The conflicting and ambiguous conclusions resulting from communication studies are obvious. Bidwell calls for more research into the principal-teacher communication phenomenon within an organizational context.<sup>2</sup> Becker points out that present preservice programs for school principals place little emphasis on the development of skills related to effective communication and the establishment of productive relationships with the diverse elements of the school and community.<sup>3</sup> Finally, Halpin has recurringly pleaded for the understanding of the importance of language to the administrative task.<sup>4</sup> Thus it seems evident that the area of communication and interpersonal relationships needs to be researched more extensively in the hope of finding more conclusive theories involving the function of communications phenomena.

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<sup>1</sup>Halpin, p. 253.

<sup>2</sup>Charles E. Bidwell, "The School as a Formal Organization," Handbook of Organizations, ed. J. G. March (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965), pp. 992-1022.

<sup>3</sup>Gerald Becker and others, Elementary School Principals and Their Schools: Beacons of Brilliance and Potholes of Pestilence, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 056 380, 1971.

<sup>4</sup>Halpin, pp. 253-279.

## LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT STYLES

In any hierarchical organization the question of leadership arises. Thus, in the field of education, it is not surprising to find many studies dealing with the effectiveness, efficiency, and method or style of leadership. Such studies can approach the problem from two directions: first, to define and analyze the "good leader" and then stipulate the personal qualities which mark him as a successful leader; second, to analyze the role of leadership in various forms of organizational and environmental situations and then attempt to draw conclusions as to methods, instead of personal qualities, of leadership.

Early researchers shared with the average man a fundamental bias in regard to leadership. They were influenced by the tendency to see persons as origins of actions and thus believed that leadership behavior originated from the personal qualities of the leader. Approaching the study of leadership from this point of view, the empirical studies compared leaders with non-leaders, focusing on personality traits in the hope of uncovering the bases of leadership. After considerable review of this sort of research, Gibb<sup>1</sup> concluded that attempts to find a consistent pattern of traits that characterized leaders had failed. He pointed

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<sup>1</sup>C. L. Gibb, "Leadership," Handbook of Social Psychology, 2 (November, 1954), 877-920.



out that the attributes of leadership are any or all of those personality characteristics that, in any particular situation, make it possible for an individual either to contribute to the achievement of a group goal or to be perceived as doing so by other members of the group. Lippitt<sup>1</sup> also reports similar dissatisfaction with the personal traits approach to leadership study. Perhaps the chief result drawn from such research is the conclusion that the study of personal characteristics alone is only one aspect of the study of leadership and that such traits do not function significantly in isolation from other factors.

The second approach, which deals with styles of leadership, purports to overcome the problems generated by the personal/charismatic style of research. Lewin, Lippitt and White,<sup>2</sup> with their studies of behavior in experimentally created social climates, provided impetus for the styles of leadership approach. These studies identified three styles of leadership: autocratic, laissez-faire, and democratic. The location of leadership or decision making function represents the difference in these styles.

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<sup>1</sup>Gordon L. Lippitt, "What Do We Know About Leadership?", National Education Association Journal, 44 (December, 1955), 556.

<sup>2</sup>Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt and R. K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," Journal of Social Psychology, 10 (May, 1939), 271-289.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt,<sup>1</sup> in a modification of this approach, developed a leadership continuum which extends from "Boss-Centered Leadership" to "Subordinate-Centered Leadership."

The democratic style of leadership has provided the basis for many researchers. This received much attention under the auspices of the National Training Laboratories, a program sponsored by the National Education Association under the direction of Leland P. Bradford and Gordon L. Lippitt.<sup>2</sup> Aspegren<sup>3</sup> found that the democratic style of leadership produces higher results in subordinates' task motivation, senses of progress, and attitudes toward their superior than did other leadership styles. Chase<sup>4</sup> substantiates this conclusion. He found that democratic leadership by school administration increases the satisfaction in and enthusiasm for the role held by teachers.

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<sup>1</sup>Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," Harvard Business Review, 36 (March-April, 1958), 95-101.

<sup>2</sup>Leland P. Bradford and Gordon L. Lippitt, "Building a Democratic Work Group," Personnel, 22 (November, 1945), 142-152.

<sup>3</sup>Albert Aspegren, "A Study of Leadership Behavior and its Effects on Morale and Attitudes in Selected Elementary Schools" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951), p. 51.

<sup>4</sup>Francis S. Chase, "Factors Productive of Satisfaction in Teaching" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1951), p. 99.

Peterson<sup>1</sup> has accepted this democratic leadership style as preferable to other leadership styles and has worked with methods of changing the behavior of those in leadership capacities toward a more democratic style. Sachs<sup>2</sup> also has studied the democratic style and has formulated five basic premises from which he translates practical applications of democratically based action and interaction. Chung<sup>3</sup> has further supported the usefulness of the democratic leadership style in the field of education.

Although research conducted using the democratic approach has made significant contributions to the understanding of group and leader behavior, Lippitt<sup>4</sup> has concluded that "it is incorrect to stereotype a leader as being one type or another. Leaders tend to vary their behavior according to the situation." Finally, as Watkins concludes, the whole democratic approach has been hampered by use of

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<sup>1</sup>R. Duane Peterson, Effects of Democratic Leadership Instruction on Elementary School Faculty Meetings, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 025 040, August, 1968.

<sup>2</sup>Benjamin M. Sachs, Educational Administration, A Behavioral Approach, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 016 286, 1966.

<sup>3</sup>Ki-Suck Chung, Teacher-Centered Management Style of Public School Principals and Job Satisfaction of Teachers, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 042 259, March, 1970.

<sup>4</sup>Lippitt, p. 156.

the loaded term "democratic"; a term which has been so vaguely defined that it has lost its meaning.<sup>1</sup>

Recent theoretical and empirical studies of leadership in such diverse fields as public administration, industrial relations, group dynamics, and educational administration have consistently emphasized at least two significant dimensions of leadership that appear to be of equal importance. Barnard<sup>2</sup> has termed these two dimensions organizational "effectiveness" and organizational "efficiency". He has defined these terms as: "Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in character."<sup>3</sup>

Cartwright and Zander have labeled the two dimensions "goal achievement" and "group maintenance", similar to productivity and morale.<sup>4</sup> Halpin, Stogdill and others have

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<sup>1</sup>J. Foster Watkins, The Relationship Between the Principal and His Professional Staff in the Public School, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 010 419, June, 1966.

<sup>2</sup>Chester I. Barnard, The Function of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938), pp. 60-61.

<sup>3</sup>Barnard, loc. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Darwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, Group Dynamics: Research and Theory (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Co., 1953), p. 541.

further developed the two-dimension framework and refined the concept of "initiating structure", or productivity, to include overtones of "change-agency" into the leadership task.<sup>1</sup> Lippitt, Watson and Westley<sup>2</sup> maintain that the "change agent" quality in the leadership behavior of principals is the key element in determining the nature of the learning environment. After exploring many "blind alleys" their research has moved its focus from the examination of personality traits and administrative competencies to investigations of organizational roles and behavioral studies of leadership. Throughout these later studies, administration as a behavior and a social process consistently emerged in the two-dimensional conceptual framework.

Getzels and Guba provided an excellent explanation of two basically different leadership styles: the "nomothetic", which stresses the roles and role expectations with the institution, and the "idiographic" style, which emphasizes the personal needs and dispositions within the individual.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Andrew W. Halpin and B. James Winer, "A Factorial Study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions," Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, ed. Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons (Columbus: Ohio State University, 1957), p. 204.

<sup>2</sup>Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1958), pp. 91-126.

<sup>3</sup>J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review, 65 (Winter, 1957), 436-437.

Guba further expands this framework into a three dimensional system which includes an intermediate dimension which he labels "transactional".<sup>1</sup> Within this "transactional" dimension, the nomothetic (institutional) and idiographic (individual) dimensions interpenetrate one another. The processes within a social system may be viewed as a dynamic transaction between roles and personality, in which both the socialization of personality and the personalization of roles takes place. Thus, "transactional" implies situation orientation, rather than institution of personality orientation. Lonsdale<sup>2</sup> states that the primary task of administrative leadership is the sustaining of the organization in "dynamic equilibrium", dynamic connoting a change orientation rather than a static type of organizational equilibrium. This seems to denote that administrative function is primarily in the "transactional" area, mediating and maintaining equilibrium between organization and individualism. Guba defines the unique task of the administrator as that "of mediating between these two sets of behavior-eliciting forces, that is, the nomothetic and the idiographic, so as to produce behavior which is at once organizationally useful

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<sup>1</sup>Egon G. Guba, "Role, Personality and Social Behavior" (Columbus: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, The Ohio State University Press, September, 1958), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>2</sup>Richard Lonsdale, "Maintaining the organization in Dynamic Equilibrium," ed. Griffiths, op. cit., p. 142.

as well as individually satisfying."<sup>1</sup>

Argyris reached similar conclusions. He maintains that there is a basic conflict between individual human personality and its objectives and formal organization. Therefore, within formal organization an informal organization develops which "helps decrease the basic causes of conflict, frustration, and failure."<sup>2</sup> He states that the formal and informal must be considered together as a total social system--the total organization.

Gibb sums up the present status of leadership theory when he defined leadership as:

...an interactional phenomenon and interaction theory seems best fitted to provide a framework for studies of leadership....In general, it may be said that leadership is a function of personality and the social situation, and of these two in interaction.<sup>3</sup>

Gibb further stressed that any adequate theory must take into consideration the importance of the perception of the situation and the people included in the interaction by all those involved in the group situation. He strongly emphasizes that the perception of reality among individuals

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<sup>1</sup>Guba, "Research in Internal Administration--What Do We Know?" loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Chris Argyris, Personality and Organizations (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 230.

<sup>3</sup>Gibb, p.917.

varies and that this perception is what determines the individual behavior of people.<sup>1</sup>

Hearn found that systems may be "open" or "closed."<sup>2</sup> An "open" system relates and makes exchanges with its environment; while a "closed" system does not, being characterized instead by an increase in entropy. Griffiths'<sup>3</sup> own theory of administration being the directing and controlling of the decision making process, rather than decision making itself, fits neatly into the concept of "open" system of Hearn, who in turn operates within the "transactional" area of the Guba model.

Empirical research has led to the development of techniques which describe and measure degree of leadership. Such research done at Ohio State University resulted in the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Highly influenced by this research, Halpin and Croft developed the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ). They successfully established the value of the empirical approach which permits one to measure the leader behavior of

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<sup>1</sup>Guba, p. 914.

<sup>2</sup>Gordon Hearn, Theory Building in Social Work (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1958), pp. 44-50.

<sup>3</sup>Daniel E. Griffiths, "Administrative Theory and Change in Organizations," Innovation in Education, ed. Matthew B. Miles (New York: Bureau of Publications Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 435.



an individual as this behavior is perceived by the members of the immediate work group. The empirical approach allows one to determine by objective and reliable means how specific leaders vary in leadership behavior. Another asset of this approach is that the observation of behavior occurs in the actual group situation and not in a hypothetical or experimental setting.

Many have used the LBDQ as the bases of their research. These include Hemphill's work with department heads in a liberal arts college,<sup>1</sup> other studies by Halpin,<sup>2</sup> and Evenson.<sup>3</sup> Utilizing the procedures set forth by Halpin in the study of school superintendents, Evenson secured the perceptions of the leader behavior of forty principals from both their superintendents and their teaching staffs. He reported some differences in the perception of the same behavior between these two reference groups, but he emphasized that the groups tended to agree among themselves. The more effective principals were rated high on Initiating

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<sup>1</sup>John K. Hemphill, "Patterns of Leadership Behavior Associated with the Administrative Reputation of the Departments of a College," Journal of Educational Psychology, XLVI (November, 1955), 385-401.

<sup>2</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Columbus: University Press, Ohio State University, 1956), p. 4.

<sup>3</sup>Warren L. Evenson, "The Leadership Behavior of High School Principals" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1958), p. 108.

Structure and Consideration.<sup>1</sup>

Fleishman and Harris employed the LBDQ in research in an industrial setting.<sup>2</sup> The study indicated that low Consideration and high Structure tended to go with high grievances and turnover. Consideration was the dominant factor. Regardless of the amount of Structure maintained in their work group, both grievance and turnover were highest in groups having foremen low on Consideration.

Another study, by Lawshe and Nagle, is concerned with the relationship between workers and their immediate supervisors. This study substantiates the hypothesis that the supervisor's behavior is highly related to the assumption by Halpin and the organizational climates are, induced, at least in an important part, by administrative behavior.<sup>3</sup>

Two questionnaire studies that preceded the OCDQ research may have been instrumental in the formation of the above mentioned assumption by Halpin. One of these, a study conducted by the Research Division of the National Education Association in 1945, looked specifically at the relationship

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Edwin A. Fleishman and Edwin F. Harris, "Patterns of Leadership Behavior Related to Employee Grievances and Turnover," Personnel Psychology, 15 (Spring, 1962), 43-56.

<sup>3</sup>C. H. Lawshe and Bryant P. Nagle, "Productivity and Attitude Toward Supervisors," The Journal of Applied Psychology, 37 (June, 1953), 159-172.

between the professional leadership of school administrators and the morale of their teaching staffs. The study concluded that high morale groups tended to emphasize the importance of good professional leadership, whereas low morale teacher groups reported such hindrances to effective teaching as incompetent administrators and interfering supervisors.<sup>1</sup>

A more recent study by Francis Chase is concerned with the same relationship. Chase states that his most significant finding was the close correspondence between teachers' ratings of their administrators and the teachers' satisfaction with the school situations in which they work. In the teachers' opinions of the contributing factors of their satisfaction, 88 percent indicated the dynamic and stimulating leadership by their principal as being the greatest factor.<sup>2</sup>

This emphasis upon the leadership position of the principal has been extensively pursued by Gross and Herriott in a research program recently completed at Harvard University. These investigators identified the

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<sup>1</sup>"The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration," Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, XXIII (Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1945).

<sup>2</sup>Francis S. Chase, "Professional Leadership and Teacher Morale," Administrator's Notebook, March, 1953, p. 9.

concept of Executive Professional Leadership (EPL) as:

The efforts of an executive (the principal) of a professionally staffed organization (the school) to conform to a definition of his role that stresses his obligation to improve the quality of staff performance.<sup>1</sup>

Gross and Herriott disclosed a positive relationship between EPL and the teachers' morale, their professional performance, and the pupils' learning. They interpret their findings as providing: "empirical support for a leadership conception of the principal's role."<sup>2</sup>

Gerald Moeller has studied attitudes toward "the school as a bureaucratic organization." He investigated the hypothesis that "bureaucracy in a school organization induces a sense of powerlessness to effect school system policy."<sup>3</sup> Results of his research through questionnaire procedures were contrary to this major hypothesis. They led Moeller to surmise that bureaucratic organization gave teachers a greater sense of power to effect change within their system than did organization along what some have called more "democratic" lines.

Recent research has also utilized the OCDQ. While

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<sup>1</sup>Gross and Herriott, loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 151.

<sup>3</sup>Gerald Moeller, "Bureaucracy and Teachers' Sense of Power," The School Review, 72 (Summer, 1964), 139.

many of these studies, including those by Feldvebel, Brown, Heller, Randles, and others have made few major breakthroughs, they tend to substantiate the validity of the OCDQ and provide support for the belief of Halpin that the Open Climate is the preferred organizational climate.<sup>1</sup>

### DECISION MAKING

In the school organizational structure, the principal's primary function is that of decision maker. Miklos states:

Decisions are made at all times in all situations. There are individual decisions, group decisions, strategy decisions, tactical decisions, policy decisions, and operative decisions. There are decisions which affect a whole institution for years, and others which affect only a few persons for a short time. Some decisions have a highly political connotation, while others have mainly rational determinants. Every decision involves choice from among possible alternatives. Every decision is followed by consequences, some of which may be unanticipated. Hence every decision involves

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<sup>1</sup>Alexander M. Feldvebel, "The Relationship Between Socio-Economic Status of the School's Patrons, Organizational Climate of the School, and Pupil Achievement Level" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1964); see also, Robert J. Brown, "Identifying and Classifying Organizational Climates in Twin City Area Elementary Schools" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1964); Robert W. Heller, "Informal Organization and Perceptions of the Organizational Climate of Schools" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University, 1964); Harry E. Randles, "The Effects of Organizational Climate on Beginning Elementary Teachers" (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1964).

risks, and the decision-maker must be prepared to live with these risks. Every decision is dictated within a chain of prior and succeeding decisions. No decision is immutable. In fact, one of the qualities of effective decision-makers is that they can change or alter their decisions quickly when needed. It is also a widely accepted principle that those who are going to be affected by a decision should be involved in its making. Not all decisions can be completely correct, but not too many can be totally wrong either. And once the die is cast, it is impossible to go back to the situation as it was before. The importance of effective decision-making from classroom to school board is clear.<sup>1</sup>

Reynoldson points out that most of the theories of decision making in education are based primarily on ideas borrowed from governmental and industrial research. Little basic research on decision making has originated in public school or college organizations.<sup>2</sup>

The decision making structure of an organization influences the members' attitudes and degree of participation in organizational goals. According to Simon:

Insight into the structure of an organization can best be gained by analyzing the manner in which decisions and behavior of such employees

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<sup>1</sup>E. Miklos, Developing a Concept of the Principalship. The Lecture Series of the 1967 Leadership Course for School Principals, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 043 932, 1967.

<sup>2</sup>Donald Reynoldson, The Interrelationships Between the Decision-Making Process and the Innovativeness of Public Schools, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 035 101, November, 1969.

are influenced within and by the organization.<sup>1</sup>

Boss and Leavitt, in a study of planning and implementing tasks in business, found:

...performance was somewhat better and attitudes more positive when subjects were acting out plans they had developed for themselves....Productivity was lower and attitudes less positive when subjects were acting out plans developed for them by others.<sup>2</sup>

A study conducted by Vroom substantiates this conclusion. Vroom found that increased participation in decision making resulted in more positive effects on job attitudes and motivation.<sup>3</sup>

Two basic types of organizational structure for decision making may be identified as: the traditional (centralized or pyramidal organization structure) and the modern (decentralized or flat organizational structure). The traditional structure emphasizes the role of management in decision making; the modern structure emphasizes human relations. Shepard has identified five key differences between the two structures:

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<sup>1</sup>Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: The Free Press, 1957), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>B. M. Boss and H. J. Leavitt, "Some Experiments in Planning," Management Science, July, 1963, p. 584.

<sup>3</sup>Victor H. Vroom, Some Personality Determinants of the Effects of Participation (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960), pp. 89-90.

...(a) wide participation in decision making rather than centralized decision making; (b) the face-to-face group rather than the individual as the basic unit of organization; (c) mutual confidence rather than authority as the integrative force in the organization; (d) the supervisor as the agent for maintaining the intra-group and inter-group communication rather than the agent of higher authority; (e) growth of members of the organization to greater responsibility rather than external control of the members' performance of their tasks.<sup>1</sup>

The major strength of the decentralized structure appears to be the utilization of expertise in the organization. Decisions are made by personnel close to the problem who have the knowledge and who have been given the responsibility to make the decision. Reynoldson states:

Organizational decision making involves a number of different roles and personalities. The interaction of these variables will in large part determine the direction of decision making. The roles of personnel in organizations are perceived differently by each individual member. Environmental settings, organizational guidelines, his own unique personality characteristics, and the perception of his role as he interacts with other staff members determine an individual's behavior in a given position. A major administrative problem is to coordinate the needs of the individual with those of the organization to obtain desired goals.<sup>2</sup>

The role of the executive in the decision making process is considered by Griffiths who contends that the

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<sup>1</sup>H. Shepard, "Superiors and Subordinates in Research," Journal of Business, April 1956, p. 261.

<sup>2</sup>Reynoldson, loc. cit.



executive should be called upon to make a decision only when the organization fails to make its own decision. He further states that:

The effectiveness of a chief executive is inversely proportional to the number of decisions which he must personally make concerning the affairs of the organization. It is his function to monitor the decision-making process to make certain that it performs at the optimum level.<sup>1</sup>

Similar views are expressed by Rogers<sup>2</sup> and Meyers.<sup>3</sup> They feel that the administrator should serve as a catalyst for releasing the capacity of others to make decisions.

Bennis and Chase predict an increase in the movement of organizations from a closed or traditional to a more open or modern system for decision making. Chase suggests that educational administrators must continue to learn to "...play a facilitating role in educational decision making...." and "...function as participants...." rather than act as controllers of the process.<sup>4</sup> Bennis also

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<sup>1</sup>Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 89.

<sup>2</sup>Carl Rogers, Freedom to Learn (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1969), p. 29.

<sup>3</sup>Donald A. Meyers, "The Art of Decision Making," The Principal and the Challenge of Change, ed. J. M. Novotney (Melbourne, Florida: Institute for the Development of Educational Activities, Inc., 1968), pp. 46-58.

<sup>4</sup>Francis S. Chase, "We Look Before and After--A Perspective on Educational Administration," Administrators' Notebook, September 1969, p. 4.

contends that the trend in planned change programs will continue to be "...less bureaucratic and more participative...."<sup>1</sup>

Halpin and Croft have also assumed that an open climate allows leadership acts to be more easily initiated by designated leaders or faculty members in public schools. In addition, a more harmonious relationship presumably exist among staff members and there is more likely to be mutual agreement concerning procedures to be used in achieving organizational goals.<sup>2</sup>

According to Tannenbaum, decision making involves a conscious selection of one alternative from among a group of two or more alternatives. In reaching a decision, a person typically 1) defines the problem, 2) generates a number of action alternatives which are relevant to the problem, 3) specifies the consequences related to each alternative being considered, and 4) exercises a choice among alternatives.<sup>3</sup>

Argyris in his study of interpersonal barriers to

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<sup>1</sup>Warren G. Bennis, "Theory and Method in Applying Behavioral Science to Planned Organizational Change," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, April 1965, p. 359.

<sup>2</sup>Andrew W. Halpin and Don B. Croft, "The Organizational Climate of Schools," Administrators' Notebook, March 1963, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup>Robert Tannenbaum, "Managerial Decision-Making" (Los Angeles: University of California Institute of Industrial Relations, 1966), pp. 23-24. (Mimeographed.)

decision making suggests that executives can increase risk taking by subordinates by withholding evaluation and criticism of proposals and by avoiding a show of surprise when unusual ideas come forth from a group. The leader's responsibility is to minimize the penalties associated with the free and open expression of ideas and feelings.<sup>1</sup>

Onofrio contends that ideally decisions should emanate from the group immediately involved rather than from the principal. He states that an ever present danger is for the school principal to consider himself not merely the ship's captain, but its mechanic; not a leader, but solely a managerial administrator.<sup>2</sup>

In his research investigating the interrelationships of educational decision making with the organizational climate and innovativeness in public schools, Reynoldson found that the educational decision making structure does not measurably influence decisions of professional staff members to adopt innovative practices. More innovation was indicated in schools with greater openness of organizational climate. Reynoldson concluded that factors such as personality characteristics of the administrator, his willingness

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<sup>1</sup>Chris Argyris, "Interpersonal Barriers to Decision-Making," Harvard Business Review, 44, No. 2 (1966), 84-97.

<sup>2</sup>John E. Onofrio, The Public School Principal in Terms of Today's Leadership Role Expectations, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 025 024, September, 1968.

to adopt innovative ideas, his leadership style, and the diffuseness of the communication network may have more influence on decisions to adopt innovative ideas than the structure of decision making.<sup>1</sup>

Bridges suggests that teacher participation in decision making has desirable consequences. When the principal involves teachers in making decisions which are located in their zone of indifference, participation is less effective. A teacher is interested in participating if the decision is relevant to him and if he is capable of contributing to the decision. Decisions appropriate for participant determination hold high relevance to the teacher.<sup>2</sup> Chase substantiates this position in his study of 1800 teachers in 216 systems in forty-three states. He writes: "Teachers who report opportunity to participate regularly and actively in making policies are much more likely to be enthusiastic about their school systems than those who report limited opportunity to participate."<sup>3</sup> The opportunity to share in formulating policies apparently is an important factor in

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<sup>1</sup>Reynoldson, loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Edwin M. Bridges, A Model for Shared Decision Making in the School Principalship, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 013 480, 1967.

<sup>3</sup>Francis S. Chase, "The Teacher and Policy Making," Administrator's Notebook, May 1952, p. 121.

the morale of teachers and their enthusiasm for the school system. Furthermore, Bridges found that teachers preferred principals who involved their staffs in decision making and that this was true regardless of whether the teachers had a high or low need for independence.<sup>1</sup> These findings lend weight to the position that participation does increase a teacher's level of satisfaction in teaching, his enthusiasm for the school system where he works, and his positive attitudes toward the principal.

Both Chase<sup>2</sup> and Bridges<sup>3</sup> found that teachers expressed resentment toward excessive committee work, attendance at meetings, and being consulted on decisions which they felt the principal was paid to make. Barnard points out that subordinates have zones of indifference within which an administrator's decisions will be accepted unquestionably; for the administrator to seek involvement with this zone of indifference is to court resentment, ill will, and opposition.<sup>4</sup>

Patterson has studied the variables of power and influence to operational decision making in high schools. He

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<sup>1</sup>Bridges, loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Chase, pp. 121-122.

<sup>3</sup>Bridges, loc. cit.

<sup>4</sup>Barnard, pp. 14-15.

found that despite the type of decision making climate established by the principal, most influence or perceived influence remains in the hands of relatively few individuals or groups. The degree of openness can increase the number of influentials or perceived influentials. A relatively closed decision making climate greatly reduces individual and group participation or perceived influence in most decisions. Unorganized groups have an especially difficult time in exerting influence or in being perceived as influential. Proximity to the principal, in terms of official position or physical base of operations, is often a very important influence factor, for individuals. A form of elitism prevails in schools. However, a relatively open decision making climate serves somewhat to reduce elitism. A closed decision making climate reinforces elitism and suppresses individuals or groups that might otherwise influence decisions. Consistent aggressiveness and retention of operational decisions at the top will markedly reduce influence or perception of influence. Only persons who are present in the day-to-day operation of schools possess potential to be perceived as general key influentials. Groups which contain top influentials, or have consistent communication with them, will possess markedly more influence than other similar groups without this type of advantage. Finally, Patterson found that in relatively closed decision making climates a collective group action or organizational sponsorship of a

spokesman can result in influence that individuals could achieve alone in decisions for schools with a relatively open decision making climate.<sup>1</sup>

Torrance has found that more effective groups have leaders who allow for greater participation, initially wider divergence of expressed judgments, and greater acceptance of diverse decisions.<sup>2</sup> Moreover, Maier and Solem have shown that effective leaders encourage minority opinions and conflict to a greater extent than less effective leaders.<sup>3</sup> Coch and French have also determined that group participants with little influence over a decision not only fail to contribute their resources to a decision but usually are less likely to carry out the decision when action is required.<sup>4</sup>

According to Schmuck and Runkel, attempting consensus is probably the least frequently used form of decision making

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<sup>1</sup>Wade N. Patterson, A Comparative Study of Organizational Decision-Making in High Schools, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 018 867, February, 1968.

<sup>2</sup>E. P. Torrance, "Group Decision-Making and Disagreement," Social Forces, 35 (October, 1957), 314-18.

<sup>3</sup>N. Maier and A. R. Solem, "The Contribution of a Discussion Leader to the Quality of Group Thinking: The Effective Use of Minority Opinions," Human Resources, 5 (August, 1952), 277-88.

<sup>4</sup>L. Coch and J. R. P. French, Jr., "Overcoming Resistance to Change," Human Relations, 1 (January, 1948), 512-32.

in schools. One attraction the majority vote style holds for administrators is that it easily disguises and avoids conflicts that result from differences of opinion. While consensus usually does result in a more resourceful decision, it is not designed to avoid conflict or overcome group resistance; therefore it is frequently discounted as infeasible and impractical. However, decisions concerning instructional matters could be more effectively made if staff members were able to stimulate and encourage use of one another's resources in the process of decision making.<sup>1</sup>

Cross reports on a study of the administrative behavior of school principals made through direct observation and a set of unique categories. Study objectives were to describe 1) the sources of principals' problems, 2) the principals' initial reactions to problem stimuli, 3) the patterns of principals' decision making, 4) the premises employed by principals in making initial responses to problems, and 5) a tested system of categories for use by other researchers in studying administrators' decision making behavior. Cross found that principals' decision making patterns are reactive, rapid, and probably strongly influenced by subordinates. Problem stimuli were provided

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<sup>1</sup>Richard Schmuck and Philip Runkel, Organizational Training for a School Faculty, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 037 832, 1970.



by subordinates in 51 percent of the cases, by principals' perceptions of unsatisfactory conditions in 22 percent, by extraordinates in 18 percent, by members of the hierarchy or their staff in 8 percent, and by peers in 1 percent of all cases. The pattern of problem origins and initial principal responses suggests that the principals in this study operated almost entirely within the social system of the local attendance area, at least with respect to decisions which the subjects regarded as critical.<sup>1</sup>

A feature of the data worthy of notice is the rapid pace of decision making by the principals, with the concluding decision coming soon after the problem stimuli. It seems likely that this rapid pace derives from a large problem volume which principals typically handle.<sup>2</sup> A previous study conducted by Cross and Bennett indicates that principals handle an average of approximately 100 problems per day. Under such conditions it can hardly be expected that principals reach decisions through the deliberative, self-conscious classic steps in decision making.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ray Cross, A Description of Decision Making Patterns of School Principals, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 049 530, February, 1971.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ray Cross and Vernon Bennett, Problem Situations Encountered by School Principals in Different Socioeconomic Settings, U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 028 523, February, 1969.

Cross concludes that decision making patterns of principals in the study could be characterized as reactive, probably strongly influenced by subordinates, and rapid. Thus he raises questions as to what extent administrative planning and evaluation are possible when principals are occupied in this manner.<sup>1</sup>

#### SHADOW STUDIES

The use of ethnographic accounts, i.e., accounts which deal with actual human behavior, in the area of educational administration are scarce. What little data exist on the actual behavior of school administrators depend mostly on self-reporting techniques, which are dependent on many subjective observations, and may lead to biased and inaccurate conclusions.

The shadow study, in which a participating and non-prejudicial observer records the actions of school administrators, is one method of ethnographic research which purports to overcome the short-comings of self-reporting. The methodology of such "participant-as-observer" is discussed by Gold.<sup>2</sup> One of the unique aspects of employing the participant-observer methodology for conducting research in

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<sup>1</sup>Cross, loc. cit.

<sup>2</sup>Raymond L. Gold, "Roles in Sociological Field Observation," Social Forces, 36 (Fall, 1958), 217-223.

schools is that although the independent observer finds virtually no opportunities for full-fledged participation, the opportunities for observation and recording are limited only by the endurance of the observer. Thus it is not surprising that fieldwork accounts in schools are based on limited but intense and efficient periods of observation rather than the more elongated periods of more traditional anthropological fieldwork.<sup>1</sup>

The nature of shadow studies makes it imperative that the observers be accepted by the observed individuals and that after a period of adjustment the researcher blends into the social setting and becomes unnoticed by the observed. Gussow has reported on the problems of such acceptance, specifically on the hesitancy of teachers to accept classroom observers whom they suspect might not be "sufficiently understanding of classroom life."<sup>2</sup>

A major study utilizing the shadow technique in the field of educational administration is that of Walcott. By using the methodology discussed above, he was able to describe and analyze the behavior of a particular principal and his interaction with his staff, pupils, and parents who

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<sup>1</sup>Bud B. Khleif, "Issues in Anthropological Fieldwork in Schools" (Durham: Department of Sociology, University of New Hampshire, 1969), p. 10. (Mimeographed.)

<sup>2</sup>Zachary Gussow, "The Observer-Observed Relationship as Information about Structure in Small-group Research," Psychiatry, 27 (September, 1964), 230-247.

collectively comprise "his" school.<sup>1</sup>

Walcott also deals with the limitations of shadow studies. He states: "I cannot imagine that my presence did not produce some changes in Ed Bell's (the principal) behavior, although I am at a loss to give specific evidence of such change."<sup>2</sup>

Thus, while the use of shadow studies may have certain limitations, it does, in general, overcome many of the constructions and misinterpretations of self-reporting studies and adds a useful dimension of information to areas of the study of personal behavior.

#### CONCLUSION

From the review of pertinent literature and research it was found that interrelationships are believed to exist between organizational climate, principal behavior, and leadership style. This study was developed to examine such interrelationships.

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<sup>1</sup>Walcott, pp. xi-xv.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 13.

## Chapter 3

### METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

Permission and cooperation of the Des Moines Independent Community School District was secured on January 3, 1975 to conduct this research project in two Des Moines elementary schools, each containing grades kindergarten through six. The study, itself, was conducted during the month of April, 1975. Participation was to be voluntary on the part of the principals.

The populations for this study were the behaviors of principals concerning school-related discussions in public elementary school settings which have relatively "open" organizational climates and behaviors of principals concerning school-related discussions in public elementary schools which have relatively "closed" organizational climates. Since it was impossible to observe all such behaviors in all schools where such situations would exist, it was necessary to limit this study to two schools, one with an "open" climate and one with a "closed" climate, and the observations were made over a limited period of time.

The results of a study conducted by Dr. Aris Petasis<sup>1</sup> were used to identify the two schools. It was thus possible

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<sup>1</sup>Aris P. Petasis, "The Relationship of Organizational Climate to Selected Variables" (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, Drake University, 1974).

to identify one school which had a relatively "open" climate and one which had a relatively "closed" climate. The principals of these two schools were utilized as the subjects of this study and certain behavioral information about them was collected.

The school with the relatively "closed" climate was built in 1953 with additions completed in 1958 and 1965. The facility was a single level structure in good condition. Pupil enrollment consisted of 522 children in grades kindergarten through six, with two classes of educable mentally retarded youngsters. Eighteen percent of the children who attended received free or reduced-in-price hot lunches. Twenty-three teachers were assigned to the building.

The building principal was female, fifty-two years of age, with ten years experience as a principal. She held a Master's degree plus 36 additional graduate hours. She had been the building administrator for three years.

The school, which was designated as being relatively "open", was originally constructed in 1918 with additions completed in 1929, 1949 and 1954. This was a two-story structure with a basement and was in good condition.

Pupil enrollment consisted of 515 students in grades kindergarten through six, with one classroom serving as a hearing-impaired resource center. Fourteen percent of the students received free or reduced-in-price hot lunches.

Nineteen teachers were assigned to the facility.

The principal was female, forty-nine years of age, with eight years experience as a principal. She held a Master's degree and 30 additional graduate hours. She had been building administrator for eight years.

An instrument had been developed by Nicholas, Virjo and Wattenberg,<sup>1</sup> which measured two dimensions: the nature of problems and the initiators of problems. This instrument was expanded to include another dimension, that of location, i.e., where the initiation of the school-related discussion occurred. (See Appendix A.)

The study dealt with the classification of school-related discussions involving the principal, who initiates the school-related discussion and the location where the school-related discussion occurred. For each incident a plus (+), minus (-) or zero (o) was entered. A plus indicated an interaction with positive valence. A minus sign indicated an interaction with negative valence. A zero indicated interaction with neutral valence. Eighteen classifications of types of school-related discussions (coded by numerical symbols, 1-18), nineteen classifications of

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<sup>1</sup>Lynn N. Nicholas, Helen E. Virjo and William W. Wattenberg, Effect of Socioeconomic Setting and Organizational Climate on Problems Brought to Elementary School Offices, U.S., Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 2394 (Detroit, Michigan: Wayne State University Press, 1965), p. 5.

types of initiators (coded by alphabetic symbols, A-R, with X for the unknown), and twenty classifications of locations where school-related discussions took place (coded by alphabetic symbols, a-t) were postulated.

To assure familiarity with the investigative instrument, and to enhance the probability of consistently accurate observations, the observer spent three one-hour periods making practice observations in a school separate from those included in this study. These observations were made on March 3, 6 and 11, 1975. On the basis of the trial observation periods, modifications to the observation record were made. The coding grid of 18 x 19 x 20 was found to be too complicated for on-the-spot coding as observations were made. The observer found it more expedient to jot down annotations wherein the topic, initiator and location were identified, to be coded later by the numeric and alphabetic symbols. A tally of these symbols was consolidated on the original observation record. A new observation record was developed. (See Appendix C.) This was used during the last one-hour practice observation period.

Three days prior to beginning observations in the identified schools, April 4, 1975, the two principals were given an orientation to the observation form and were requested to record all school-related interactions that took place outside of the regular working day. (The working day was defined by the Des Moines Personnel Policies and



Procedures Manual as 8:00 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.) Throughout the duration of the two-week observation period, the principals maintained records of all school-related interactions outside the period of direct observation on the form provided. During this same time period, the investigator observed and recorded school-related discussion behaviors in the regular work day hours.

Observations began in the relatively "closed" school on April 7, 1975 and continued over a two-week period until April 18, 1975. Observations began in the relatively "open" school on April 21, 1975 and concluded on May 2, 1975.

For each principal, those data collected by the observer and the principal, were combined and categorized in each of the three dimensions by frequency. The raw data of this study were purely enumerative of the occurrences of 18 topics of school-related discussions, 19 types of initiators and 20 classifications as to the location of the interactions.

To insure reliability as to the correct categorization of interactions, Dr. Donald Prine, from the Department of Evaluation for the Des Moines School District, was asked to also categorize the interactions. Dr. Prine was chosen because of his expertise in working with categorical data. Of the 4,684 discussions annotated, in both schools, differences between the researcher's and Dr. Prine's categorization of interactions were only one-tenth of one percent.

There were no differences as to the topic of school-related discussions, the initiator, or as to the location of the interaction. Differences were in the area of valence. Because the number of differences was small, these interactions were all recorded as zero, or no valence.

It was then possible to use a Chi-square to determine independence as specified by the four null hypotheses. The Chi-square used was as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

Where:

$f_o$  was the observed frequency in a cell, and  
 $f_e$  was the expected frequency in a cell.<sup>1</sup>

The .05 level of significance was used to determine if each null hypothesis was retained or rejected.

Since the expected frequencies in the cell concerning "topics" were all equal to or greater than five, it was possible to use all the data collected on that dimension. In cells concerning "initiators", it was necessary to combine three cells and to eliminate from the analysis three other cells in each set. In cells concerning "location", it was necessary to eliminate seven cells in each situation

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<sup>1</sup>George A. Ferguson, Statistical Analysis in Psychology and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), pp. 173-75.

because of low expected frequencies.

These tables are presented and analyzed in the following section on findings.

## Chapter 4

### PRESENTATION OF DATA

A total of 4,684 school-related discussions, each with a topic, initiator, and location, was extracted from the accumulated observation forms for the two elementary principals. Statistical tables, in this chapter, present the data in two forms, i.e., in terms of raw frequencies and in terms of Chi-square contributions. The organization of the tables is set up for examination of the data in regard to the three null hypotheses: (1A) the valence (positive, negative, or neutral) of school-related discussions, (1B) the topics of school-related discussions, (2) the type of initiator of school-related discussions, and (3) the location of initiation of school-related discussions.

The null hypotheses were tested against the data in these tables. Because there were only two situations, whenever the Chi-square contribution was high in one situation it was also high for the other situation in that if there is a greater-than-expected observed frequency in one situation there will be a lower-than-expected observed frequency in another. Therefore, only one situation will be discussed in each case.

# THE VALENCE OF SCHOOL-RELATED DISCUSSIONS

The null hypothesis to be tested in this case is number 1A: The nature (valence, i.e., positive, negative or neutral) of school-related discussion with or by the principal is independent of the organizational climate of the school.

Table 1 shows the frequencies of school-related discussions, by valence, in which the building principals were involved in each of the two schools. The data show a Chi-square value of 29.4 in the comparison of the relatively "open" organizational climate school with the relatively "closed" organizational climate school. The differences are significant.

TABLE 1

FREQUENCIES OF INTERACTIONS BY VALENCE AND  $\chi^2$  CONTRIBUTIONS

Valence	OPEN			CLOSED		
	Frequencies			Frequencies		
	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$
+	137	101.7	12.3	77	112.3	11.1
(plus)						
-	16	10.9	2.4	7	12.1	2.1
(minus)						
o	2,074	2,114.4	.8	2,373	2,332.6	.7
(no valence)						
Total	2,227	2,227	15.5	2,457	2,457	13.9

Total  $\chi^2 = 29.4^*$

\*p < .001, df = 2

The area of greatest Chi-square contribution was that of positive value or (+). There were more positive school-related discussions in the relatively "open" climate school than would be expected based on the total number of such discussions. This statement is substantiated by the data which indicate the principal was "expected" to have 101.7 interactions initiated which would have been of a positive nature while in fact 137 such discussions were introduced. The data indicates an "expected" frequency of 10.9 negative discussions with the principal of the relatively "open" organizational climate school; however 16 such discussions were recorded by the observer.

On the basis of this evidence, the null hypothesis number 1A was rejected at the .001 level of significance, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted, that the organizational climate of the school affects the nature (valence) of school-related discussion with or by the principal.

One additional test was possible with these data which was not initially planned. The test was to determine if, in fact, there are more school-related discussions in one climate than the other which carry any valence, i.e., positive or negative.

Table 2 shows the frequencies of school-related discussions, by valence, in which the building principals were involved in each of the two schools. The data show a Chi-square value of 25.6 in the comparison of the relatively

"open" organizational climate school with the relatively "closed" organizational climate school. The differences are significant.

TABLE 2

FREQUENCIES OF INTERACTIONS BY VALENCE AND  $\chi^2$  CONTRIBUTIONS

	OPEN			CLOSED		
	Frequencies			Frequencies		
	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$
Valence	153	115.1	12.5	84	121.9	11.8
No Valence	2,074	2,111.9	.7	2,373	2,335.1	.6
Total	2,227	2,227	13.2	2,357	2,357	12.4

Total  $\chi^2 = 25.6^*$

\*p < .001, df = 1

There were more school-related discussions which had valence in the relatively "open" climate school than would be expected based on the total number of such discussions. This statement is substantiated by the data which indicate the principal was "expected" to have 115.1 interactions which would have had valence while, in fact, 153 such discussions were initiated.

#### TOPICS OF SCHOOL-RELATED DISCUSSIONS

The null hypothesis to be tested in this case is number 1B: The nature (topic) of school-related discussion

with or by the principal is independent of the organizational climate of the school.

Table 3 indicates the topics of school-related discussions engaged in by each building principal. The data also show a Chi-square value of 226.9 in comparing the relatively "open" organizational climate school with the relatively "closed" school. The differences are significant.

The areas of greatest Chi-square contributions were: Co-Curricular topics, In-Service and Professional Growth, Administrative Emergencies, Pupil Neighborhood Disturbances and Pupil Welfare topics.

In the school which was designated as having a relatively "open" organizational climate, three school-related discussion topics had greater frequencies than "expected" from the Chi-square calculations. The "expected" frequency for Co-Curricular school-related discussions was 171.2 while 249 such discussions were observed. In-Service and Professional Growth discussions totaled 189 interactions while 142.6 "expected" observations had been calculated. Discussions concerning Pupil Neighborhood Disturbances were observed 49 times while the "expected" total was 29 such interactions.

Two school-related discussion topics had fewer frequencies than "expected" in the relatively "open" organizational climate. One Administrative Emergency discussion was held while 16.6 such discussions were "expected". Pupil



TABLE 3

FREQUENCIES OF INTERACTIONS BY TOPICS AND  $\chi^2$  CONTRIBUTIONS

Topics	OPEN			CLOSED		
	Frequencies			Frequencies		
	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$
1. Administrative Organizational	430	476.8	4.6	573	526.2	4.2
2. Personnel	193	178.7	1.1	183	197.3	1.0
3. Administrative Emergencies	1	16.6	13.7	34	18.4	15.0
4. Pupil Transfer and Enrollment	47	63.1	4.2	86	69.9	3.8
5. Pupil Whereabouts	166	143.1	3.7	135	157.9	3.3
6. Pupil Property	25	23.3	.1	24	25.7	.1
7. Pupil Accidents and Emergency	82	85.6	.2	98	94.4	.1
8. Classroom Disturbance	183	180.6	.0	197	199.4	.0
9. Misbehavior in School Building and Ground	156	168.7	1.0	199	186.3	.9
10. Pupil Neighborhood Disturbances	49	29.0	13.8	12	32.0	12.5
11. Academic Achievement	159	160.2	.0	178	176.8	.0
12. Co-Curricular	249	171.2	35.4	111	188.8	32.1
13. Auxiliary Service	41	50.4	1.8	65	55.6	1.6
14. Pupil Health	35	54.6	7.1	80	60.4	6.4
15. Pupil Welfare	21	39.5	8.7	62	43.5	7.9

TABLE 3 (Continued)

Topics	OPEN			CLOSED		
	Frequencies			Frequencies		
	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$
16. School Community Relations	127	153.1	4.4	195	168.9	4.0
17. Physical Plant	74	89.9	2.8	114	98.1	2.6
18. In-Service, Professional Growth	189	142.6	15.1	111	157.4	13.7
Total	2,227	2,227	117.7	2,457	2,457	109.2

Total  $\chi^2 = 226.9^*$

\*p < .001, df = 17

Welfare discussions totaled 21 while 39.5 "expected" observations were calculated.

On the basis of this evidence, null hypothesis number 1B was rejected at the .001 level of significance, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted, that the organizational climate of the school affects the nature (topic) of school-related discussion with or by the principal.

#### INITIATORS OF SCHOOL-RELATED DISCUSSIONS

The null hypothesis to be tested in this case is number 2: The type of individual (pupils, parents, staff, etc.) who initiates school-related discussion is independent of the organizational climate of the school.

Table 4 presents comparisons of the types and numbers of initiators of school-related discussions involving the principals. The data show a Chi-square value of 91.1 in the comparison of the relatively "open" organizational climate school with the relatively "closed" organizational climate school. The differences are significant.

In both schools, the principal was the chief initiator of school-related discussions as was to be expected. It should be pointed out that a school-related discussion was defined as any verbal interaction between one or more persons and the building principal on any school-related topic, occurring at any time during the two-week observation period.

The areas where the greatest contributions to the

TABLE 4

FREQUENCIES OF INTERACTIONS BY INITIATORS\* AND  $\chi^2$   
CONTRIBUTIONS

Initiators	OPEN			CLOSED		
	Frequencies			Frequencies		
	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$
A. Principal	1,209	1,202.3	.0	1,316	1,322.7	.0
B. Assistant Principal	48	31.9	8.1	19	35.1	7.4
C. Secretaries	82	129.5	17.4	190	142.5	15.8
D. Teachers	340	340.9	.0	376	375.1	.0
E. Pupils	236	201.4	5.9	187	221.6	5.4
F. Parents	149	135.2	1.4	135	148.8	1.3
H. Nurse	7	11.0	1.5	16	12.0	1.3
I. Custodial	24	29.5	1.0	38	32.5	.9
J. Other School Personnel	43	44.3	.0	50	48.7	.0
K. Supervisors						
L. Coordinators	24	16.2	3.8	10	17.8	3.4
M. Consultants						
N. Central Administration	13	15.2	.3	19	16.8	.3
O. Auxiliary Service Personnel	25	28.6	.5	35	31.4	.4
P. Personnel from Other Schools	14	29.0	7.8	47	32.0	7.0
R. Public Services	11	10.0	.1	10	11.0	.1
Totals	2,225	2,225	47.8	2,448	2,448	43.3

Total  $\chi^2 = 91.1^{**}$

\*Initiators G (Citizens), Q (Social Welfare Agency Personnel) and X (Unknown Persons) were deleted due to the lack of recorded observations and resulting low expected frequencies in those cells.

$^{**}p < .001$ ,  $df = 13$

total Chi-square occurred were: the Assistant Principal, Secretaries, Pupils, Supervisors, Coordinators and Consultants, and Personnel from Other Schools.

In the school which was designated as having a relatively "open" organizational climate, three types of initiators had greater frequencies than "expected" from the Chi-square calculations. The "expected" frequencies for the Assistant Principal was 31.9 while 48 such discussions occurred. Pupils initiated 236 school-related discussions while 201.4 interactions had been "expected". Twenty-four discussions were with Supervisors, Coordinators or Consultants while 16.2 such initiations were "expected".

Two types of initiators, Secretaries and Personnel from Other Schools, had fewer frequencies than "expected" in the relatively "open" organizational climate. Secretaries initiated 82 school-related discussions while 129.5 "expected" observations were calculated. Fourteen interactions were observed with Personnel from Other Schools while the "expected" total was 29 observations.

On the basis of this evidence, null hypothesis number 2 was rejected at the .001 level of significance, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted, that the organizational climate of the school affects the type of individual who initiates school-related discussion with the principal.

## LOCATIONS OF SCHOOL-RELATED DISCUSSIONS

The null hypothesis to be tested in this case is number 3: The location in which school-related discussion is initiated is independent of the organizational climate of the school.

Table 5 presents locations where school-related discussions occurred with each building principal. The data show a Chi-square value of 369.9 in comparing the relatively "open" organizational climate school with the relatively "closed" school. The differences are significant.

The locations of greatest Chi-square contributions were: the Principal's Office, the Teachers' Lounge, Halls, Cafeteria, Classrooms, the Principal's Reception area and in Other Schools.

In the school which had a relatively "open" organizational climate, three locations had greater frequencies than "expected" from the Chi-square calculations. The "expected" frequency in the Teachers' Lounge was 136.8 while 206 such discussions were observed. More school-related discussions were observed in the Halls, 428, than the "expected" frequency of 330.7 such discussions. Interactions occurred in the Classrooms on 424 occasions while the "expected" total of such discussions was 334.5.

Four locations had fewer school-related discussion observations than "expected" in the relatively "open" organizational climate. In the Principal's Office, the

TABLE 5

FREQUENCIES OF INTERACTIONS BY LOCATION\* AND  $\chi^2$   
CONTRIBUTIONS

Location	OPEN			CLOSED		
	Frequencies			Frequencies		
	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$	Obs.	Exp.	$\chi^2$
a. Principal's Office	412	557.4	37.9	761	615.6	34.3
b. Principal's Reception Area	348	422	12.9	540	466	11.8
c. Nurse's Office	114	98.4	2.5	93	108.6	2.2
d. Halls	428	330.7	28.6	268	365.3	25.9
e. Classrooms	424	334.5	23.9	280	369.5	21.7
f. Teachers' Lounge	206	136.8	35.0	82	151.2	31.7
g. Teachers' Eating Area	124	113.6	.9	115	125.4	.9
h. Cafeteria	61	116.4	26.4	184	128.6	23.9
k. Library	14	25.2	4.9	39	27.8	4.5
n. School Grounds (Exclusive of the building)	63	50.8	2.9	44	56.2	2.6
o. Child's Home	12	5.7	6.9	0	6.3	6.3
q. Other Schools	6	21.4	11.1	39	23.6	10.0
s. Principal's Home	8	7.1	.1	7	7.9	.1
Totals	2,220	2,220	194.0	2,452	2,452	175.9

Total  $\chi^2 = 369.9^{**}$

\*Locations i (Cafeteria Manager's Office), j (Custodian's Office), p (Citizen's Residence), l (Students' Restrooms), m (Central Administration Offices), r (Other Agencies), and t (Other Specified) were deleted due to the lack of recorded observations and resulting low expected frequencies in those cells.

\*\*p < .001, df = 12

"expected" frequency was 557.4 discussions while 412 school-related discussions were observed. The Chi-square "expected" frequency in the Cafeteria was 116.4 whereas 61 such discussions were recorded. Discussions occurred in the Principal's Reception Area a total of 348 times while the "expected" frequency calculated was 422. Six school-related discussions occurred in Other Schools in the district while the "expected" total of such interactions was 21.4.

On the basis of this evidence, null hypothesis number 3 was rejected at the .001 level of significance, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted, that the organizational climate of the school affects the location in which school-related discussion is initiated with or by the principal.

#### THE NUMBER OF SCHOOL-RELATED DISCUSSIONS

In order to complete the information in this chapter, it should be noted that of the 4,684 school-related discussions observed, 2,227, or 48 percent, of these occurred in the school with the "open" climate.



## Chapter 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A summary of the research findings, the conclusions based on those findings, and recommendations resulting from this study will be presented in this chapter.

### SUMMARY OF THE INVESTIGATION

The populations for this study were the behaviors of principals concerning school-related discussions in public elementary school settings which have relatively "open" organizational climates and behaviors of principals concerning school-related discussions in public elementary schools which have relatively "closed" organizational climates. Two schools were identified for the purpose of this study. The principals of these two schools were utilized as the subjects for this study and certain behaviors which they displayed were observed and recorded.

An instrument was developed which measured three dimensions: the nature of problems, the initiator of problems, and the location where school-related discussions were initiated. The study dealt with the classification of school discussions involving the principal, the initiators of school-related discussion and the location where the school-related discussion occurred.

Data were gathered through direct observation using

an observation record. These were tabulated to obtain frequencies in classifications of types of school-related discussions, types of initiators, and the location where school-related discussions are initiated. It was then possible to use a Chi-square to determine independence as specified by three null hypotheses.

The results of the analyses of the data generated by this study are summarized in the following findings:

1A. The organizational climate of the school affects the nature (valence) of school-related discussion with or by the principal.

1B. The organizational climate of the school affects the nature (topic) of school-related discussion with or by the principal.

2. The organizational climate of the school affects the type of individual who initiates school-related discussion with the principal.

3. The organizational climate of the school affects the location in which school-related discussion is initiated with or by the principal.

### CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are based on the findings in this study:

1. Principals in relatively "open" organizational climate schools participate in school-related discussions

which tend to have valence, either positive or negative, while principals in relatively "closed" organizational climate schools participate in school-related discussions which tend to have neither positive nor negative valence.

2. Co-Curricular, In-Service and Professional Growth topics are initiated more frequently in relatively "open" organizational climate schools.

3. School-related discussions occur more frequently with the Assistant Principal, pupils, supervisors, coordinators and consultants in relatively "open" organizational climate schools, while such discussions are held more frequently with secretaries in the relatively "closed" organizational climate schools.

4. Principals in relatively "open" organizational climate schools participate in school-related discussions more frequently in the teachers' lounge, halls and classrooms of the school, while those in relatively "closed" organizational climate schools participate in such discussions more frequently in the school office area.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of this investigation, the following recommendations are made:

1. School district policy makers, central administrators and community representatives should study the interactions and differences in interactions which exist

between climates, decide which climate is preferable, and then, based on that decision, provide in-service for school administrators to promote the type of climate desired.

2. Additional studies should be conducted to determine if:

(a) the sex of the principal affects school-related discussions between schools of the same climate or across climate types;

(b) the school organization, i.e., Individually Guided Education (IGE), open space, traditional, etc., affects school-related discussions between schools of the same climate or across climate types; and

(c) the age and/or the administrative experience of the principal affects school-related discussions between schools of the same climate or across climate types.

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## APPENDIX A

### INITIATOR, TOPIC, AND LOCATION CLASSIFICATION

## Initiator Classifications

- (A) Principal
- (B) Assistant Principal
- (C) Secretaries
  - Cooperating students, substitute clerical help
- (D) Teachers
  - Substitute and student teachers
- (E) Pupils
- (F) Parents
  - Guardians, neighbors and relatives in charge
- (G) Citizens (not parents of students in the building)
- (H) Nurse
  - Other health department personnel
- (I) Custodial and Maintenance Personnel
- (J) Other School Personnel
  - Lunchroom aides, playground aides, library associates, teacher associates, vendors, delivery men, parent volunteers, instructional media repairmen, cooks, cafeteria workers, bus drivers, and others
- (K) Supervisors (non-teaching)
  - Maintenance, guidance, academically talented, home economics, music, food services, health and safety, nurse, mathematics, staff development, social studies, art, custodians, language arts,



science, instructional media, and from colleges

- (L) Coordinators of "special" programs or projects  
Volunteer programs, head start, vocational-technical, COP program, office services, follow through, facilitators, and others
- (M) Consultant Teachers
- (N) Central Administration  
Superintendent's office, elementary department, personnel department, and other central office personnel
- (O) Auxiliary Service Personnel  
School psychologist, school social worker, speech clinician, instrumental music teacher, dental hygienist, police liaison officer, community, and others
- (P) Personnel from Other Schools  
Visiting teachers, college students, and other principals
- (Q) Social Welfare Agency Personnel  
Public assistance and others
- (R) Public Services and Community Agency Personnel  
Police, fire department, public works, community groups, councils, courts, and others
- (X) Unknown Persons

## Topic Classifications

## (1) Administrative Organizational Topics

Scheduling, reorganization, teacher duties, supplies, requisitions, reports, payroll, financial accounting, mail, deliveries, pickups, safety organization, fire and tornado drills, and others

## (2) Personnel Topics

Teacher transfers, substitute service, student teacher assignments, sick leave and pay, leave of absence, insurance, retirement, certification, evaluation, parking, promotions, crossing guard, lunchroom and playground aides, library and teacher associates, parent volunteers, clerical and maintenance personnel problems, and others

## (3) Administrative Emergencies

Emergency safety, city services, lunchtime emergencies, messages to and from office, temporary re-scheduling, miscellaneous hazards and emergencies, unidentified problems, and others

## (4) Pupil Transfers and Enrollment

Transfers, enrollment, birth certificates, entry from institutions, special education classes

enrollment, messages and conferences regarding  
the above

(5) Pupil Whereabouts Accounting

Tardiness, absence, truance, missing pupils,  
suspensions, police and juvenile detentions,  
apprehensions, investigations of address,  
guardians, parents, tuitions, and others--mes-  
sages and conferences about above

(6) Pupil Property Accounting

Lost and found, ownership disputes--messages and  
conferences about above

(7) Pupil Accidents and Emergency Sickness

First aid, sick and injured cases, accident  
reports, exclusions for suspected contagions--  
messages about above

(8) Classroom Disturbance Topics

Miscellaneous offenses occurring in classrooms  
sent to office--messages and conferences about  
above

(9) Misbehavior in School Building and Grounds

Miscellaneous offenses occurring on school  
property but out of the classroom--messages and  
conferences about above

(10) Pupil Neighborhood Disturbances

Miscellaneous offenses occurring in the  
neighborhood brought to the office--messages

and conferences about above

(11) Academic Achievement

Marks, failures, homework, special classes, summer school, demotion, promotions, and others-- messages and conferences about above

(12) Co-Curricular Activities

Festivals, programs, trips, exhibitions, clubs, service groups, instrumental music, special ability classes, contests, student council and others

(13) Auxiliary Service Topics

Attendance center services, psychological services, speech and hearing services, homebound teacher services, general referrals to school system services, and others

(14) Pupil Health

Nurse services, health drives, immunization, health referrals to various clinics, hearing tests, health records, and other routine health matters

(15) Pupil Welfare

Indigent pupil services (milk, school supplies, lunches, bus tickets, free health exams, free glasses, clothing, and others)

(16) School-Community Relations

PTA, communications to parents, citizen

complaints, cooperation with neighborhood organizations, pressure groups, adult education, charity campaigns, special weeks and drives, elections, hospitality to visitors, and others

(17) Physical Plant Facilities

Custodial and maintenance services, repairs, heat, sanitation, furniture, equipment, building inspections, piano tuning, community use of building, and others

(18) In-Service, Professional Growth

Meetings, faculty trips, supervision of instruction, committees, workshops, professional organizations, research projects, educational experiments, innovations, student teachers, orientation, and others

## Location Classifications

- (a) Principal's Office
- (b) Principal's Reception Area
- (c) Nurse's Office
- (d) Halls
- (e) Classrooms
- (f) Teachers' Lounge
- (g) Teachers' Eating Area
- (h) Cafeteria
- (i) Cafeteria Manager's Office
- (j) Custodian's Office
- (k) Library
- (l) Students' Restrooms
- (m) Central Administration Offices
- (n) School Grounds (exclusive of the building)
- (o) Child's Home
- (p) Citizen's Residence
- (q) Other Schools
- (r) Other Agencies
- (s) Principal's Home
- (t) Other (specified)

APPENDIX B

TRIAL OBSERVATION RECORD FORM





APPENDIX C

FINAL OBSERVATION RECORD FORM

DATE \_\_\_\_\_

## CLIMATE

[illegible]

APPENDIX D

APPROVAL FORM TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN  
DES MOINES SCHOOLS

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH  
IN THE  
DES MOINES PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Directions: Complete this form in triplicate and return to the Administrative Assistant to the Assistant Superintendent for Education, Room 110, Des Moines Public Schools, 1800 Grand Avenue, Des Moines, Iowa 50307.

1. General Information

Applicant's Name Gary H. Sheldon Phone 262-6922

Address 2669 E. Sheridan, Des Moines, IA Zip Code 50317

Please check or complete the following:

Resident of Des Moines? ☒ yes ☐ no

Resident of Iowa? ☒ yes ☐ no

Des Moines Contract Teacher? ☒ yes ☐ no

If so, building assignment Cen. Adm.

Student Teacher? ☐ yes ☒ no

If so, building assignment \_\_\_\_\_

Are you a graduate of Des Moines Public Schools? ☒ yes ☐ no

Sponsoring Institution/Agency Drake University

Sponsoring Professor Dr. Richard Brooks

2. Details of Proposed Research Project

- a. Purpose of your wish to pursue this research  
(Please be explicit)

See attached proposal

- b. Describe the problem which you propose to study in your project. (Include hypotheses, data gathering procedure, and proposed statistical treatment. Attach added pages if necessary.)

See attached proposal

- c. Title of Study Effect of Organizational Climate on School Related Discussions with the Elementary Principal

3. Please indicate:

- a. Schools or groups to be involved in this research  
(Approval of building principal in advance)

Three

- b. Number of pupils to be participants None
  - c. Number of teachers or other staff members to be directly involved None
  - d. Dates you plan to conduct the study, gather data, etc. April 1-30, 1975
  - e. Estimated amount of staff and student time required None
4. Briefly outline procedures you propose to follow in distribution, administration return of instruments requiring a staff or student response.

See attached proposal

Please note:

1. This application must be accompanied by one copy of all instruments used in the research.
2. The signature of the instructor, professor, or graduate adviser, signifying approval of the applicant's research project must be included below.
3. All studies must have the approval of building principals where they will be conducted, unless other advance arrangements are made with the department directors or the Assistant Superintendent for Education.
4. Allow three weeks for review and evaluation of your request. Notification of approval or denial will be in writing. Please understand that the Des Moines Schools have a responsibility for the education of over 45,000 students. With several colleges and universities in the region, it may not always be possible to honor all requests because of the many students who make application annually.
5. To avoid conflicts in the opening and closing activities in schools, requests to gather data must be scheduled between October 1 and May 1.

I understand that the granting of permission to pursue this research project in the Des Moines Public Schools obligates me to provide 3 copies of an abstract of findings to the Assistant Superintendent for Education or his designated representative, and one copy to each principal of the building where the project was carried out. At the request of school

officials, I agree to provide them with one complete copy of all findings directly resulting from the study. I further agree to comply with all conditions described in the publication "Procedures for Requesting Approval to Conduct Research in the Des Moines Public Schools."

Signature of Applicant \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of Sponsoring  
Professor \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

Approved by \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_  
Official of Des Moines Public Schools